

**FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SELECTED GRADE 4 – 6 CLASSES
IN WESTERN CAPE URBAN SCHOOLS:
THE CASE OF AFRIKAANS**

by

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December 2014**

DECLARATION

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By submitting this dissertation, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification

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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to confirm that I assisted Ms **CHRISTA THORNHILL** (Curriculum Studies in the Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University) with the language editing of her doctoral thesis: **FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING IN GRADE 4 – 6 CLASSES IN WESTERN CAPE URBAN SCHOOLS: THE CASE OF AFRIKAANS**, while she was preparing the manuscript for submission. I went through the entire draft making corrections and suggestions with respect predominantly to language usage. Given the nature of the process, I did not see the final version, but made myself available for consultation as long as was necessary.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to investigate and describe the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in selected Gr 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. This was done by presenting an overview of the literature relevant to FAL teaching and FAL curricula as well as the results from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with Gr 4 – 6 teachers. This study does not offer a quick-fix solution to the problems in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms, but the researcher believes that the findings will highlight the daily challenges Afrikaans FAL teachers have to face and that all role players will become actively involved in improving the state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the Western Cape.

The relevance of this study lies in the national drive towards the promotion of multilingualism among the general population and especially in education. Feedback from student teachers returning from practice teaching indicated that not enough time is allocated by schools for the instruction of Afrikaans FAL; greatly differing methodologies as well as teaching and learning materials are being used in Afrikaans FAL classes; and learner and teacher Afrikaans proficiency varies from class to class.

A theoretical framework for language teaching and learning, a literature study pertaining to first additional language teaching nationally and internationally, and an analysis of South African FAL curricula support the research. Constructivism, social constructivism and teacher knowledge were identified as the underpinning theories for language teaching and learning. The literature study provides an overview of all the major methodologies relevant to FAL teaching and the researcher concluded that there is no single method or approach that will ensure effective FAL teaching, but that teachers should implement an eclectic approach to achieve the best results.

This study used a mixed methods approach to generate empirical data; 125 questionnaires, completed by Grade 4 – 6 Afrikaans FAL teachers, provided the quantitative data. For the qualitative strand of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 17 Afrikaans FAL teachers. The data of these interviews were used as triangulation, to confirm or disconfirm and elaborate on the results of the questionnaires.

One of the major factors impacting negatively on the teaching and learning of Afrikaans FAL is the negative attitude towards Afrikaans among many learners and their parents. Teachers are not equipped with teaching strategies and techniques to manage these negative attitudes. The results show that many teachers still follow a teacher-centred approach to

teaching, which is an indication that learners are not given enough opportunities to develop their communicative competence through interaction with others. Another factor affecting Afrikaans FAL teaching negatively is that not all schools implement the prescriptions of the various language policies and curricula as they should.

The study also investigated the use of appropriate and relevant learning and teaching support materials (LTSM) in the FAL classroom. The results showed that most teachers still mainly use the textbook as teaching resource. There is a dire need for appropriate Afrikaans LTSM for FAL. The expectation is that, in the age of technology we find ourselves in today, learners' interest will be stimulated through the use of technological teaching aids. Teachers should therefore have access to, and use, a variety of media and technological teaching aids and be able to integrate them effectively into their language teaching.

The findings of the study revealed teachers are caught up in traditional language teaching methods and strategies which do not contribute to the enhancement of learners' proficiency in the target language. The study also closely examined the different types of knowledge that a language teacher should have. The results showed that the teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, language policies, language teaching and learning theories as well as methodologies is extremely limited. Therefore a new method or approach is needed, which is why this study recommends that the HEIs and the WCED ensure that initial teacher training programmes and in-service training workshops are upgraded and adapted in order to prepare the teachers adequately to implement the prescribed curriculum using appropriate methodologies and strategies.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die huidige stand van Afrikaans Eerste Addisionele Taal (EAT) onderrig in gekose Gr 4 – 6 klasse in Wes-Kaapse stedelike skole te ondersoek en beskryf. Dit is gedoen by wyse van die aanbieding van 'n oorsig van die betrokke literatuur oor EAT-onderrig en EAT-kurrikula, asook die resultate van vraelyste en semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude met Gr 4 – 6-onderwysers. Hierdie studie bied nie 'n kitsoplossing vir die probleme in die Afrikaans EAT klaskamers nie, maar die navorser glo dat die bevindinge die uitdagings wat Afrikaans EAT-onderwysers daagliks trotseer, sal beklemtoon en dat alle rolspelers aktief betrokke sal raak om die stand van Afrikaans EAT onderrig in die Wes-Kaap te verbeter.

Die toepaslikheid van hierdie studie is gesetel in die nasionale klem op die bevordering van meertaligheid onder die algemene publiek en veral in die onderwys. Studente terugvoer na die praktiese onderwys dui daarop dat nie genoeg tyd aan die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT in skole bewillig word nie en dat daar 'n groot verskeidenheid onderrigmetodes en onderrig- en leerhulpmiddels in Afrikaans EAT-klasse aangewend word. Leerders en onderwysers se vaardigheid in Afrikaans wissel ook van klas tot klas.

Die navorsing is ondersteun deur 'n teoretiese raamwerk van taalonderrig en –leer, 'n literatuurstudie van eerste addisionele taalonderrig, nasionaal sowel as internasionaal, asook 'n analise van Suid-Afrikaanse EAT-kurrikula. Konstruktivisme, sosio-konstruktivisme en onderwyser kennis is geïdentifiseer as die teoretiese begronding vir taalonderrig en –leer. Die literatuurstudie gee 'n oorsig van al die belangrike en relevante EAT-metodieke. Die navorser het tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat nie een enkele metode of benadering effektiewe EAT-onderrig kan verseker nie, maar dat onderwysers 'n eklektiese benadering behoort te volg om die beste resultate te verseker.

Hierdie studie het 'n gemengde navorsingsbenadering gevolg ten einde empiriese data te genereer. Die kwantitatiewe data is ingesamel by wyse van talle vraelyste wat deur Gr 4 – 6 Afrikaans EAT-onderwysers voltooi is. Semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude is met 17 Afrikaans EAT-onderwysers gevoer ten einde die kwalitatiewe data in te samel. Die data van hierdie onderhoude is gebruik as tri-angulasie om die resultate van die vraelyste te bevestig of te weerspreek.

Een van die belangrikste faktore wat die onderrig en leer van Afrikaans EAT negatief beïnvloed, is baie leerders en ouers se negatiewe houding teenoor Afrikaans. Onderwysers

is nie toegerus met die nodige onderrigstrategieë en –tegnieke om hierdie negatiewe houdings aan te spreek nie. Die resultate wys daarop dat baie onderwysers steeds 'n onderwyser-gerigte benadering volg wat daartoe lei dat die leerders nie genoegsame geleentheid kry om hulle kommunikatiewe vaardighede by wyse van interaksie met ander te ontwikkel nie. 'n Ander faktor wat Afrikaans EAT-onderrig negatief beïnvloed, is die feit dat nie alle skole die voorskrifte van die verskillende taalbeleide en kurrikula implementeer soos van hulle verwag word nie.

Hierdie studie het ook die gebruik van gepaste en relevante onderrig- en leerondersteuningsmateriaal in die EAT-klaskamer ondersoek. Die resultate het daarop gedui dat die meeste onderwysers nog steeds die handboek as belangrikste onderrighulpmiddel gebruik. Daar bestaan 'n geweldige behoefte na gepaste Afrikaanse onderrig- en leermateriaal vir EAT. In die tegnologiese era waarin ons ons bevind, bestaan die verwagting dat leerders se belangstelling gestimuleer sal word deur die gebruik van tegnologiese onderrigmateriaal. Onderwysers behoort dus toegang te hê tot en 'n wye verskeidenheid media en tegnologiese onderrigmateriaal te kan gebruik en in staat wees om dit suksesvol te integreer in hulle taalonderrig.

Die bevindinge van hierdie studie het gewys dat onderwysers vasgevang is in tradisionele taalonderrigmetodes en –strategieë wat nie bydra tot die ontwikkeling van die leerders se vaardigheid in die teikentaal nie. Die verskillende soorte kennis waaroor 'n taalonderwyser behoort te beskik is ook onder die vergrootglas geplaas. Die resultate het getoon dat die onderwysers se kennis van die kurrikulum, taalbeleid, taalonderrig en –leerteorieë en metodieke uiters beperk is. Daar is dus 'n behoefte aan 'n nuwe metode of benadering en daarom beveel hierdie studie aan dat onderwyseropleidingsprogramme en indiensopleidingswerkswinkels opgegradeer en aangepas word deur die Hoëronderrysinstellings en die WKOD om te verseker dat onderwysers voldoende voorberei word om gepaste metodieke en strategieë toe te pas in die implementering van die voorgeskrewe kurrikula.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

B Ed	Bachelor of Education
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
BLA	Balanced language approach
C2005	Curriculum 2005
CALL	Computer-based language learning
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CBI	Content-based instruction
CEMIS	Centralised Educational Management Information System
CEPD	Centre for Education Policy Development
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DoE	Department of Education
FAL	First additional language
FFI	Form-focused instruction
FFL	Foundations for Learning
FonF	Focus on form
GET	General Education and Training
HL	Home language
ICT	Information and communication technologies
LiEP	Language-in-Education Policy
LLC	Language, literacy and communication
LoLT	Language of learning and teaching
LTSM	Learning and teaching support materials
MTBBE	Mother-tongue-based bilingual education
MTE	Mother-tongue education
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
OBE	Outcomes-based education
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAL	Second additional language
SCT	Sociocultural theory
SLA	Second-language acquisition

TBI	Task-based instruction
TPR	Total physical response
WCED	Western Cape Education Department
ZPD	Zone of proximal development

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND, PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 ORIENTATION

Various policy documents, such as the Constitution, the National Language Policy, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) Language in Education Transformation Plan and the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) encourage multilingualism. It is stated very clearly that the home language and a first additional language should take priority in primary education through the process of additive bilingualism. The WCED Language in Education Transformation Plan (Western Cape Education Department 2007:5) states that all three official languages spoken in the province – namely, Afrikaans, English and Xhosa – should be promoted and developed on an equitable basis. The Language-in-Education Policy of the Department of Education (Department of Education 1997a: 1) emphasises the importance of additional language teaching, “while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s).” Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002) adheres to this policy by ruling that the first additional language should be introduced as a subject in Grade 1, and it makes a distinction between home and additional languages, all learners are expected to achieve the same outcomes, although at different levels (Murray 2002:441). However, the question arises whether the practical implementation at school level of these policies corresponds with the sentiment expressed in these policies. Feedback from students returning from practice teaching indicates that not enough time is being set aside by schools for the instruction and acquisition of Afrikaans First Additional Language (FAL). According to McLaughlin (1998:70), the “implementation problem” already existed in the USA in the early 1970s. The Rand Change Agent study (McLaughlin 1998:71) found that “it is exceedingly difficult for policy to change practice” and that even if teachers in a particular site might be eager to embrace new policies, these policies might not be implemented because of a lack of support from their institution. In the case of Belgium, it is the duty of the government to outline the essential education policy, but the implementation of the policy is the responsibility of the three language communities or regions, namely the Dutch-speaking, French-speaking and German-speaking communities (Henkes 2000:58). This system is not without its own problems, as De Cock (2006:3) is of the opinion that, “although the Flemish educational system reflects this positive attitude towards foreign languages, some languages appear to be more privileged than others”.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1 Introduction

This study proceeds by discussing constructivism and social constructivism as the theoretical framework within which first additional language teaching is situated. According to the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (Western Cape Education Department 2006), outcomes-based education (OBE) is strongly rooted in constructivist learning theories. The Foundations for Learning (FFL) (Republic of South Africa 2008) advocate for the adherence to social constructivist theories in the teaching of numeracy and literacy (languages). In order for us to understand these cognitive approaches, the researcher will be looking at both individual constructivism and social constructivism.

Following on the discussion of the theoretical framework, the researcher will embark on an intensive literature study which, according to Babbie (2009: 507), is the process of digging into a body of knowledge which was compiled by previous researchers. This literature study will start off by investigating language and language-in-education policies in South Africa, followed by an exploration of past and present Afrikaans FAL curricula. The focus of the literature study will then be turned to current methodologies and approaches to first additional language teaching, learning and teaching support materials (LTSM) used in the first additional language classroom, the role and profile of the teacher, and lastly an examination of some of the characteristics of the first additional language learner.

1.2.2 Constructivism

Piaget's (1959) constructivism as a theory of learning emphasises the active participation of the learner in the learning process and the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. Piaget identifies four stages of cognitive development through which children will move. During this developmental process learners' cognitive structures become more complex, but this happens without any support from others. Tudge and Winterhoff (1993: 62) explain Piaget's theory as children making sense of the world around them on their own and only when the need arises, will there be social interaction, usually with peers rather than with adults. Williams and Burden (1997: 30) describe the underlying assumption of constructivism as follows: "individuals are actively involved right from birth in constructing personal meaning, that is their own personal understanding, from their experiences". More emphasis is placed on *how* things are learned than on *what* is learned.

Williams and Burden (1997:22) highlight the following aspects of Piaget's theory of cognitive development which they regard as being of particular significance to the language teacher. Firstly, it is of great importance for the teacher to see the learner as an individual and active participant in making sense and secondly, the teacher should ensure that the level of difficulty of any task should match the cognitive level of the learner. Piaget (1964) also warns that the acquisition or learning of language can only be successful if the language transferred by an adult is at a level that the child can understand. This means the child must have a structure in place which will allow him to assimilate the information.

1.2.3 Social constructivism

Vygotsky (1962) contests Piaget's view that the child makes sense of his world on his own through interaction with his environment, since Vygotsky regards children as being born as social beings who learn through interaction with other people. He does, however, not agree with behaviourists that adults are entirely responsible for shaping children's learning by the judicious use of reward and punishment (Williams & Burden 1997). It is through this interaction that the child makes his own sense of the world around him. Individual development can only occur inside a social world where there is social interaction between peers, or between children and adults, in a historical and cultural context. According to Lantolf and Thorne (2006), Vygotsky's approach to learning and mental development is known as sociocultural theory (SCT): "SCT argues that human mental functioning is fundamentally a mediated process that is organised by cultural artifacts, activities, and concepts" (2006:197). The WCED Numeracy and Literacy Strategy (Western Cape Education Department 2006:12) defines cognitive development according to Vygotsky as "the active internalisation of a set of relationships that are to be found originally in real cultural activity, hence the term 'social constructivism'".

Vygotsky (1978) identifies two levels of development that are present in the child, namely the actual level of development and the potential level of development. The gap between these two levels is known as the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This concept refers to the mental possibilities as well as the limitations of a child, but also illustrates the importance of the mediation of the social world to the child by parents, teachers or more capable peers (Western Cape Education Department 2006; Williams & Burden 1997; Nelson 1996).

The Foundations for Learning (Republic of South Africa 2008) regards the teacher's scaffolding of the language learner as one of the teacher's most important tasks in the learner's journey to become a skilled and functional reader. The teacher's support should

provide a scaffold for the learner in developing all the language skills. The researcher therefore focuses on the importance of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) in the language teaching and learning process, and on the vital role that teachers and other more knowledgeable peers have to play in guiding the learners through collaboration to reach a higher level of proficiency in the target language.

1.2.4 Teacher knowledge

According to Shulman (1986: 7-8) the defining characteristic of pedagogical success a few decades ago was knowledge of content and a sharp distinction was made between knowledge and pedagogy. The emphasis was on how the teachers manage their classrooms, organize activities, allocate time, structure assignments, ascribe praise and blame, formulate the levels of their questions and plan lessons. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008: 390) agree that subject matter was little more than context and that less attention was given to the subject itself and to the role it played in teaching of teacher thinking. The WCED admits that Education Departments in the post-apartheid era did not “train” teachers but “oriented” them to the National Curriculum Statement policy goals and aims. Issues relating to epistemology which provide the conceptual tools to guide teachers to navigate the new educational pedagogy were underemphasised. This has hindered the growth of knowledge about conceptual developments, innovation, creative thinking and imagination (WCED 2006:1). What were missing were the questions about the content of the lessons taught, the questions asked and the explanations the teachers offered – this ‘blind spot’ was coined by Shulman as “the missing paradigm” (Shulman 1986: 7).

A number of questions arise. How do teachers decide what to teach, how to represent it, how to question students about it and how to deal with problems of misunderstanding? Shulman (1986) investigates the complexities of teacher understanding and transmission of content knowledge and whether content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge are related. He focuses upon the “teacher’s ability to reason about teaching and to teach specific topics, and to base his or her actions on premises that can bear the scrutiny of the professional community” (Shulman 1987: 20). He suggests that a distinction is made among three categories of content knowledge: “(a) subject matter content knowledge, (b) pedagogical content knowledge, and (c) curricular knowledge” (Shulman 1986: 9).

1.2.5 Clarification of terminology

1.2.5.1 First additional language

This study focuses on the teaching of Afrikaans as first additional language in Western Cape urban schools. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011b) refer to the second language as first additional language. In the international literature the term second language is still being used widely when referring to “a language other than the mother tongue that a person or community uses for public communication, especially in trade, higher education and administration” (TEiJ 2014). Another definition for a second or first additional language from the Collins English Dictionary (2014) is: “The language a person knows, is learning or acquiring in addition to their native language”. For the purpose of this study the description of a first additional language of the RNCS and CAPS will be accepted:

The First Additional Language refers to a language which is not a mother tongue but which is used for certain communicative functions in a society, that is, medium of learning and teaching in education. The curriculum provides strong support for those learners who will use their first additional language as a language of learning and teaching. By the end of Grade 9, these learners should be able to use their home language and first additional language effectively and with confidence for a variety of purposes, including learning (Department of Basic Education 2011b: 8 & Department of Education 2002b: 4).

1.2.5.2 Urban schools

According to Russo (2004: 13), urban schools are defined as “education facilities that provide education to students who live in metropolitan areas”.

For the purpose of this study the term ‘urban schools’ refers to those schools situated within the boundaries of the Cape Town Metropolitan Area as reflected in the 2011 census data published by Statistics South Africa (2013). These schools are divided among the four Cape Town Metropole district offices of the Western Cape Education Department, namely Metropole Central, Metropole East, Metropole North and Metropole South.

1.2.6 Language policies

Language planning is seen by some as an organised search for ways to solve language problems (Bamgbose 1991; Fishman 1974). The language policies of apartheid South Africa

gave certain languages an unfair advantage and failed to acknowledge the multilingual character of South Africa, which led to imbalances in civil society and educational systems (Beukes 1991b; Alexander 2003; Plüddemann *et al.* 2004; Heugh 2002). In a multilingual country such as South Africa, where some 25 languages are used on a daily basis (Republic of South Africa 2003), the first democratically elected government of South Africa, which took office in 1994, committed itself to the promotion of constitutional multilingualism and the protection of language rights as a vehicle for social transformation. Section 29 (2) of the Constitution (Republic of South Africa 1996a) states that “all citizens have the right to receive education in the official languages or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable”.

The National Education Policy Act, Act 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996b) and the South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996c) both supported the principle of multilingualism as expressed in the Constitution. The possibilities of multilingual education were explored and on 14 July 1997 the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) (Department of Education 1997a), based on the principle of additive bilingualism, was announced. This LiEP acknowledged the multilingual nature of South Africa and endorsed the individual's right to choose his/her language of learning and teaching (LoLT). It further stipulated that all learners shall offer one approved language as a subject in Grades 1 and 2; from Grade 3 onwards all learners shall offer at least one additional language over and above their LoLT, and all language shall receive equitable time and resource allocation.

Of importance to education in the Western Cape is the Western Cape Provincial School Education Act, Act 12 of 1997 (Western Cape Education Department 1997) and the Western Cape Provincial Languages Act, Act 13 of 1998 (Western Cape Education Department 1998). The Language Policy in the Primary Schools of the Western Cape (Western Cape Education Department 2002) was introduced in November 2002. The two central recommendations of this policy are, firstly, to implement the policy of mother-tongue-based bilingual education (MTBBE) in Grades R – 6 as from 2004-2005 in all primary schools in the Western Cape Province, and secondly, to institute incentives to guide all learners towards electing to take the third official language of the Province as their second additional language (SAL).

Despite the apparent good intentions of the government and the WCED to promote and implement multilingual education, Unterhalter (2003), Cele (2004) and Alexander (2000), among others, are of the opinion that current language policies continue to advantage English (and Afrikaans) despite the government's claim of equality of all eleven official

languages. Unfortunately there is also substantial evidence that the aspiration towards additive bi- or multilingual education is being jeopardised. Howie, Venter, van Staden, Zimmerman, Long, du Toit, Sherman and Archer (2008) found that the LiEP has not been uniformly implemented or advocated, and Plüddemann *et al.* (2004: 60) confirm that WCED primary schools are moving towards a model of subtractive multilingualism.

1.2.7 Language curricula

A curriculum is more than the items listed in the official curriculum guide and should not be regarded as the syllabus, which is only really concerned with content (Curzon 1985). Both Kerr (in Kelly 1983: 10) and Wheeler (1967: 15) propose a much broader definition of a curriculum, which includes all the planned learning experiences offered by the school, inside and outside the school, and can therefore not be confined to one written document. The task team that reviewed the RNCS (Department of Education 2009:15) described a curriculum as “the extent to which they [the Department of Education] make available to teachers statements which are clear, succinct, unambiguous, measurable, and based on essential learning as represented by subject disciplines”. In the case of a national curriculum, the national government should therefore take responsibility for all aspects of the curriculum, namely its rationale, its actual implementation and its effects (Jenkins & Shipman 1976).

Fullan (2001, in Department of Education 2009) points out that no curriculum can remain static and therefore the notion of curriculum reform as an iterative process is widely accepted. The implementation of any new curriculum is, however, dependent on the teachers who will implement it. How teachers make sense of the curriculum, what they disagree with, what they regard as supporting them make a difference in their implementation of the curriculum.

Shortly after the 1994 elections the new government began the process of curriculum change in an attempt to provide equal education opportunities for all learners. As a result Curriculum 2005 (C2005), an OBE-based curriculum, was launched in March 1997 (Young 2001). One of the new learning areas was Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC). Learners were expected to do a first language as well as a second language, which emphasised the intention of the National Department of Education to promote at least bilingualism.

Unfortunately C2005 did not deliver the expected success and according to the task team for the review of Curriculum 2005 (Department of Education 2000), this might have been the result of several factors: the curriculum was implemented too hastily; the curriculum was too

radical a departure from the previous curricula; and teachers and learners were not prepared sufficiently to understand and implement the new curriculum (Harley & Wedekind 2004). After a review process of C2005, the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) was implemented in 2004. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) expected all learners to learn their home language and at least one additional official language. This model supported an additive approach to multilingualism. Once again the national curriculum did not deliver the envisaged outcomes and, after yet another review, the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was gradually phased in from 2012.

1.2.8 First additional language methodologies

The purpose of FAL teaching is the development of proficiency in the target language in order to use that language effectively and naturally in authentic situations, such as during formal and informal conversations. Donato (1994: 34) describes the goal of communication as the “successful sending and receiving of linguistic tokens”. Ushakova (1994) supports this notion by stating that FAL communication expects teachers and learners to interact in a meaningful way. Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) is not very clear about the methodology that Afrikaans FAL teachers should implement in their classrooms, it stresses the integration of the learning outcomes (skills) and the use of a thematic approach. The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a:14) refers to a “text-based, communicative and process-orientated” approach and the WCED CAPS training manual (Western Cape Education Department 2012:36) guides FAL teachers to follow a “balanced language approach” (BLA) when teaching Afrikaans. Tompkins (1997: 25) argues that effective teachers using the BLA “scaffold or support learners’ reading and writing as they demonstrate, guide, and teach, and they vary the amount of support they provide according to their instructional purpose and the learners’ needs” (Tompkins 1997: 25). This approach is in line with Vygotsky’s idea of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), where the learner is assisted in his or her development by a more knowledgeable adult, the teacher or peer.

The communicative approach to language teaching came about as an attempt to move away from the rigid audio-lingual method (Thornbury 2011). The main focus of communicative language teaching (CLT) is communicative competence, with a strong emphasis on the message, but contrary to general belief, it does not deny the importance of form and structure (Widdowson 1990; Canale & Swain 1980). As Littlewood (1981: 1) puts it: “One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language”. Krashen and Terrel’s (1983) ‘natural approach’ to second and foreign language teaching emphasises the

importance of exposure to comprehensible input in the target language, which will result in acquisition to take place naturally. This input should be just beyond the learner's current level of proficiency ($i + 1$) and meaning has priority over form.

1.2.9 Learning and teaching support materials (LTSM)

Nunan (1991) and Richards and Rodgers (1986) concur that teaching materials are of great importance in delivering the curriculum. If used correctly, good materials can be a useful professional development tool (Wright 1987). Research conducted by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) reported that in 2007 only 45% of South African learners had their own textbooks (Department of Basic Education 2011). Swales (1980) is of the opinion that it is almost impossible for one single textbook to cater for all the diverse needs which exist in most language classrooms, and therefore teachers should use additional materials which reach the goals and outcomes of the curriculum. Although many Afrikaans FAL textbooks, claiming to subscribe to the RNCS, have been published in the past, there was no departmental control over these materials. With the new CAPS the Department of Basic Education (Department of Basic Education 2012) has followed a rigorous screening process to approve suitable textbooks to be used in Afrikaans FAL classrooms.

As a result of the rapid development of technology the textbook and other printed materials are no longer the only LTSM available. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) regard computers not only as teaching tools, but also as the means to access online resources. Chapelle (2010) lists one of the advantages of using technology in the classroom as the ability to tailor activities to the individual learner's needs, which is difficult to achieve with a textbook. Kern (2006), however, warns against relying too much on technology in the classroom at the expense of the teacher and pedagogy.

1.2.10 The first additional language teacher

Nunan (1987) is convinced that in a FAL classroom, where the teacher has to adhere to the guidelines of communicative language teaching (CLT), it is the responsibility of FAL teachers to initiate communication through conscious interaction with their learners. The Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (Republic of South Africa 2011) ascribes seven roles to the teacher: specialist in a phase, subject discipline or practice; learning mediator; interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials; leader, administrator and manager; scholar, researcher and lifelong learner; assessor; and a

community, citizenship and pastoral role. In addition to these roles, Shulman (1987: 8) identifies seven types of knowledge that should be part of the teacher's arsenal: knowledge of the subject content; knowledge of learners and their characteristics; general pedagogical knowledge; knowledge of curriculum; knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values; knowledge of the classroom environment; and knowledge of the practice of teaching, or pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Bachman and Palmer (1996) further argue that the FAL teacher should also have some level of linguistic proficiency in the target language, although Chastain (1998) argues that the focus should not only be on the linguistic accuracy, but that the communicative aspect should also be taken into account.

1.2.11 The first additional language learner

C2005, the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) promote a shift from a teacher-centred approach to teaching and learning to a learner-centred approach. The teacher now has a new role as facilitator of learning and the learners become active participants in their own learning. In accordance with the theory of social constructivism, learners now have to take responsibility for their own learning, and become actively involved in knowledge construction with the guidance and support from the teacher and more knowledgeable peers through collaborative interaction. The learners' attitude toward the classroom situation, the target language and the teacher also has an impact on acquisition and learning. A positive attitude towards the above-mentioned elements will have a positive effect on language acquisition and learning (Van de Wal 2004; Stern 1983; Krashen 1983). The social status of the target language in the community will also have an impact on the learners' motivation to learn the FAL. As a consequence of the historical connotation of Afrikaans as language of the 'oppressor', many parents' negative attitude towards the language is transferred to their children (Heugh 2008; Alexander 2000).

Because learners have different learning styles and strategies (Nunan 1995), they will approach classroom tasks differently (Spolsky 1989). If the learner's learning style and strategy are accommodated in the classroom, it "can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment" (Willing 1988:1). It is important that teachers are aware of their learners' preferences with regard to learning styles and provide a variety of learning options and activities in the class which will allow learners the freedom to choose and practise their preferred way of learning. In the long run this will also have a positive impact on the learners' attitude towards, and motivation to learn, the target language.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The researcher is responsible for lecturing Afrikaans First Additional Language and first additional language methodology to pre-service teaching students in the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT). After practice teaching sessions in schools, student teachers report that greatly differing methodologies and materials are being used in schools. Learner and teacher proficiency in Afrikaans are also reported to differ greatly.

1.4 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Based on anecdotal feedback from student teachers about the teaching and learning methodologies and materials that are being implemented in WCED intermediate phase classes, and the gradual decline in Afrikaans proficiency of first-year English-speaking BEd students (CPUT 2010), the Afrikaans lecturers of the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences (including myself) were concerned about the state of the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL in the urban schools of the province.

The results of CPUT Afrikaans proficiency tests written by first-year students over the past ten years show a marked deterioration in the Afrikaans proficiency of first-year English home language teacher education students (Cape Peninsula University of Technology 2010). This is of great concern to us as initial teacher educators, as most of these students will eventually be teaching Afrikaans as first additional language to intermediate phase learners. According to a study done by Nel and Müller (2010), teachers' limited English proficiency has a negative impact on English second language learners' proficiency in English; and consequently the researcher will argue that teachers' limited Afrikaans proficiency has a negative impact on their learners' proficiency in Afrikaans.

As mentioned earlier, students' feedback during class discussions on their observations in Afrikaans FAL classrooms during teaching practice points to a vast variety of methodologies and materials used in Afrikaans FAL teaching, some of which are not suitable for FAL teaching at all. In both the RNCS (Department of Education 2002) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education 2011b), the communicative approach to FAL teaching is the recommended methodology that should be adhered to. Johnson (1994:192) is of the opinion that "the student who may be structurally competent, but who cannot communicate appropriately" is the consequence of teachers

regarding language learning as the acquisition of structures and not learning how to use the language. Allwright agrees with Johnson when he says:

language teaching, globally, has not led to a satisfactory level of communicative skill in the vast majority of cases....Textbooks and national syllabuses, resent analysis of language rather than of communicative skill (Allwright 1994:167).

Krashen (in Ellis 1985: 230) is adamant that language acquisition is a result of exposure to comprehensible input, and that learnt knowledge will only contribute to acquisition “when the acquirer understands input containing a structure that the acquirer is ‘due’ to acquire.” From anecdotal feedback from the researcher’s students, it seems as if the focus in schools is on the teaching and learning of structures and learners are seldom exposed to authentic communicative language.

Although a vast amount of research has been done on the teaching of English as FAL, both in South Africa and abroad, very little data is available on the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL in the South African context.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The data gathered through this study will inform the WCED about the state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in intermediate phase classes in urban schools in the Cape Town Metropole. The CPUT Faculty of Education and Social Sciences will also be able to identify the need for in-service training of Afrikaans FAL teachers. The data will also inform curriculum and syllabus design in the Faculty.

Following from the above the following research objectives have therefore been identified:

- To investigate the extent to which the national, provincial and school language policies and plans are being implemented in Western Cape urban schools;
- To investigate whether intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teachers in WCED urban schools have adequate training in the FAL curriculum and methodology,
- To investigate whether teachers are proficient in the language they teach;
- To investigate the current methodologies and teaching materials used in Grades 4 – 6 in WCED urban schools for Afrikaans FAL;
- To inform decision making about curriculum and syllabus design in the CPUT Faculty of Education and Social Sciences for purposes of teacher training.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.6.1 Central research question

The central research question that the researcher has formulated and will aim to answer through this research is as follows:

What is the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the intermediate phase in urban Western Cape schools?

1.6.2 Sub-questions

The central research question will be sub-divided into the following sub-questions:

- To what extent are the national, provincial and school language policies and plans for Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase being implemented at WCED urban schools?
- Are intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teachers in WCED urban schools adequately trained in the FAL curriculum and methodology, and are they proficient in the language they teach?
- Are teachers adequately equipped and resourced as far as methodologies and LTSM are concerned?

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

My research for this study was based on a mixed methods approach (Cresswell & Clark 2007:6), using both qualitative and quantitative paradigms, with a stronger focus on the quantitative. The researcher first collected the quantitative data by means of questionnaires and surveys. After that the qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The researcher conducted the interviews with teachers who had indicated their willingness to be interviewed at randomly selected schools that participated in completing the questionnaires. The data gathered during the second phase helped to explain and elaborate on the quantitative data (Cresswell & Clark 2007). According to McKay (2006:17), a controlled and structured survey research method “can use both statistical and qualitative analysis”. Brown (in McKay 2006:35) is of the opinion that:

language surveys are any studies that gather data on the characteristics and views of informants about the nature of language or language learning through the use of oral interviews or written questionnaires.

Dörnyei (in McKay 2006:35) identifies three types of information that can be provided by surveys: factual information about the characteristics of individual teachers and learners, e.g. their age, gender, language background, proficiency level, etc.; behavioural information about what students or teachers do in terms of their language teaching and learning; and attitudinal information about the teachers' and learners' opinions, beliefs or interests. This information enabled the researcher to describe the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools.

1.7.1 Data collection

1.7.1.1 Target group

In this study the researcher focused on the following target group: teachers teaching Afrikaans First Additional Language to Grade 4 – 6 learners in Western Cape urban schools.

1.7.1.2 Sampling method

McKay (2006:36) states that “In designing a survey, the primary questions the researcher needs to address are what the purpose of the survey is and who will take the survey”. According to Henning (2004), the main consideration when selecting research participants (sampling) is:

not the setting as in ethnographic research; the main motivation is the people. She needs to get to people who can travel with her on the journey towards more knowledge about the topic (Henning 2004: 71).

The population for this study was all the teachers teaching Afrikaans as FAL in Grades 4 – 6 in urban schools in the Western Cape. As this appeared to be an enormous task to obtain a list of all these teachers, the sampling frame (Struwig & Stead 2001) was changed to a list of all the urban primary schools in the Western Cape that offer Afrikaans FAL. This sampling frame was all-inclusive and comprised of schools from more affluent areas as well as schools from lower socio-economic areas, where learners' language proficiency and attitude to Afrikaans are influenced by their poor socio-economic circumstances and the political history of Afrikaans. For the quantitative strand of this research the researcher made use of 'purposeful sampling' which, according to Cresswell and Plano Clark (2007:112), is the

intentional selection of participants, in this case, those who have experience in FAL teaching in the intermediate phase. The researcher decided to select only the schools on the list from the WCED that CPUT uses as practice teaching schools. The Afrikaans FAL teachers at these schools then formed the sampling unit (Struwig & Stead 2001). McKay (2006) explains that it is sometimes difficult to get a true random sample and then researchers can use a sample of convenience, which means that researchers use participants whom they are able to get access to. It is important that this group should, in some way, represent the larger population.

For the qualitative strand of the research the researcher made use of random purposive sampling, which Barbour (2008: 157) describes as follows: "Rather than defensively insisting on convenience sampling, for example, qualitative researchers might use the detailed information about respondents afforded by a survey in order to purposively sample interviewees". Teddlie and Yu (2007) concur that purposive sampling leads to greater depth of information from a smaller number of carefully selected cases. The sampling was done randomly from those schools and teachers who returned the completed questionnaires and indicated that they were willing to participate in the interviews.

1.7.1.3 Data-collection methods

1.7.1.3.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires refer to a specific tool, also known as an instrument, for gathering information directly by asking people questions and using the responses as data for analysis (Slattery *et al.* 2011). Questionnaires are also known as scales (Slattery *et al.* 2011) when their assessment generates a quantified score. Questionnaires consist of a series of questions and can be administered in a number of different ways, e.g. personally with an interviewer, conducted over the telephone, mailed and, increasingly, made available online.

Questionnaires were sent to participating schools and the researcher met with the relevant teacher/s at each school by appointment. The purpose of these questionnaires was to gather information from the teachers about their own training and experience in first additional language teaching, their proficiency in Afrikaans, the methodology and materials used in teaching Afrikaans, as well as the implementation of national, provincial and school language policies and plans and Afrikaans FAL curricula.

1.7.1.3.2 Interviews

Blaxter *et al.* (2010) argue that the interview is a very useful technique for collecting data which would likely not be accessible using techniques such as observation or questionnaires. Byrne (2004: 182) agree and states that “qualitative interviewing is particularly useful as a research method for accessing individuals’ attitudes and values – things that cannot necessarily be observed or accommodated in a formal questionnaire”.

The researcher chose to make use of semi-structured interviews for the following reasons: semi-structured interviews allow the teachers an opportunity and time to describe their approaches in great detail and the open-ended questions seek clarification and elaboration of remarks which their responses to the questionnaires will not provide (Elbaz 1991; Magubhai *et al.* 2004).

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Wisker (2008: 87) explains that ethical guidelines “insist that researchers should not do physical or psychological harm and that, where human subjects are involved, the participants should give their fully informed consent before taking part”. Before inviting schools to take part in the research, written consent for conducting research in WCED schools was obtained from the research department within the WCED. A letter was sent to the principals of the urban schools where Afrikaans is offered as FAL, inviting them to take part in the research and seeking their consent to conduct the research in their schools. But as Struwig and Stead (2001) indicate, the permission from the department does not imply that that permission holds for all schools and teachers.

When conducting research at an institution, such as a high school, you cannot assume that consent from the principal to conduct research is adequate. Permission should be obtained from the learners, and in some cases, the parents (Struwig & Stead 2001:68).

Therefore, in this case, each teacher was fully informed about the research, including why and how they had been chosen to participate and only teachers who volunteered to complete the questionnaire and participate in the interviews were used. Confidentiality and anonymity in research implies that schools and participants will not be identifiable in print (Kvale 1996). The participants were guaranteed that their questionnaires and interviews would be treated confidentially, their contributions and the information gained from the questionnaires and interviews would remain confidential and anonymous by referring to them under code names.

The raw data (completed questionnaires and audio tapes) are carefully and safely stored and will be destroyed after the degree has been conferred on the researcher. The research findings will be made available to the participants on request.

1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION

The study comprises of six chapters, as outlined below.

- Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

This chapter introduces the research topic, provides the background to the study with the problem statement, and includes an explanation and clarification of concepts.

- Chapter2: Theoretical framework

This chapter discusses the theoretical frameworks of constructivism, social constructivism and teacher knowledge within which first additional language teaching is situated.

- Chapter 3: Literature study

The various language and language-in-education policies that are in place in South Africa and guide language curricula and school language policies are investigated, followed by a discussion of past and present curricula for First Additional Language Afrikaans. In addition, the existing literature on FAL teaching methodologies and approaches, the roles and profile of the first additional language teacher and learner are explored.

- Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter will discuss the research methodology. The aim of the research, the research question and the scope of the research are presented. Following that discussion, the research paradigm and research methodology, namely a mixed methods approach, will be described. The data-collection instruments and techniques implemented by the researcher, namely questionnaires and interviews, as well as the data-analysis process will be discussed in detail.

- Chapter 5: Analysis and discussion of results

The data gathered through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews are presented, analysed, discussed and compared in this chapter.

- Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter presents the conclusion by summarising and interpreting the research results. Based on reflection on the findings, recommendations originating from the study in connection with the broader first additional language field, are proposed. The contribution that the research can make to the knowledge foundation of language teaching is noted.

1.10 CONCLUSION

A first additional language is a compulsory component of past and current intermediate phase school curricula. These curricula should reflect the national and provincial language and language-in-education policies. Schools must ensure that the language-in-education policies are implemented. In order for this to happen effectively, FAL teachers must have a thorough knowledge of the language policies and the curriculum they are expected to deliver. A conceptual understanding and practical knowledge of FAL teaching methodologies and strategies are non-negotiable elements of the teacher's pedagogical equipment. The learners' learning styles and their attitude and motivation towards the target language also play a major role in the teaching of the FAL.

This chapter provides the background, statement of the research problem, aims and layout of the study. In Chapter Two the researcher will discuss constructivism, social constructivism and teacher knowledge as the theoretical frameworks within which first additional language teaching and learning occurs.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the theoretical framework within which first additional language teaching is situated, namely constructivism and social constructivism. In addition, the researcher will also discuss Shulman's ideas around teacher knowledge, in particular pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), as a framework for language teaching.

According to the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) Literacy and Numeracy Strategy 2006-2016 (2006), the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (Department of Basic Education 2011a) is strongly based on constructivist learning theories. In order to understand these cognitive approaches, the researcher will be looking at both individual constructivism and social constructivism. The constructivist movement, in which Piaget played a dominant role (and which will be referred to for the purposes of this study as individual constructivism (Rogoff 1990) or just constructivism), will be discussed first. A discussion of Vygotsky's theory of cultural and social construction of the mind, namely social constructivism, will follow. The chapter will be concluded with a discussion of Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge.

2.2 CONSTRUCTIVISM

In Piaget's quest to determine how children come to know something new, he rejected the behaviourist view of learning. Piaget's work initiated a movement away from traditional views of learning as the mere accumulation of knowledge or the development of skills. There was a clear shift away from the idea that learning was passive and that learners were empty vessels that had to be filled with knowledge by the teacher (Piaget 1959).

Constructivism as a theory of learning emphasises that learners are active participants in the learning process. Williams and Burden (1997: 30) describe the underlying assumption of constructivism as being "that individuals are actively involved right from birth in constructing *personal meaning* that is their own personal understanding, from their experiences." According to Tudge and Winterhoff (1993: 62), Piaget believed that children make sense of reality by interacting with the world around them on their own and if there is a need for social interaction, it is mostly with peers rather than adults. Piaget (1959) argues that interaction

with peers is different and superior to adult-child interaction in facilitating cognitive growth. Teacher-child interaction would only be useful if the teacher had the ability to become an equal to the child and not act as a superior. He believed that children younger than 7 will most likely not benefit from social interaction because of the egocentric nature of pre-operational thought. Therefore very little mention is made of social interaction and its impact on the child's development. More emphasis is placed on 'how' things are learned than 'what' is learned; in other words, knowledge is determined or constructed by the exchange or interaction between the learner and the objects in the world around him.

The lack of acknowledgement of the value of adult-child interaction is one of the major criticisms against Piaget's theory. This criticism led to a slight modification of his view and he accepted that adults can aid children's development and that they are "the sources of educational and verbal transmissions of cultural elements in the cognitive sense" (Piaget & Inhelder 1969:116).

Piaget (1959) is of the opinion that learning is a natural process that is internally driven and that the learner is always in search of equilibration or self-regulation in his interaction with the world around him. This equilibrium is a state of balance between what is known to the learner and what the learner is currently experiencing. Piaget identified two mental processes that make it possible for the learner to execute this balancing act, namely assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is the process through which the learner incorporates new information into his existing frame of knowledge or schema. Accommodation, on the other hand, is the formation of new mental structures or schema, or the adaptation of what the learner already knows to accommodate new information that does not fit in with the existing knowledge structures. These two processes occur simultaneously to contribute to what Piaget terms cognitive adaptation. Adaptation is a crucial feature of learning and of particular relevance to the learning of the grammar of a new language (Western Cape Education Department 2006; Williams & Burden 1997; Tudge & Winterhoff 1993; Brown & Desforges 1979).

Williams and Burden (1997:22) highlight the following aspects of Piaget's theory of cognitive development, which they regard as being of particular significance to the language teacher. Firstly, it is of great importance for the teacher to see the learner as an individual and active participant in making sense. When learners learn a new language they are occupied with making meaning for themselves of the language input they are exposed to as well as the activities they have to perform. During this process the role of the teacher is to assist and encourage learners in the process and not to regard them as passive receivers of the

knowledge. Secondly, the teacher should ensure that the level of difficulty of any task should match the cognitive level of the learner. The level of activities should be pitched at a level which is neither too abstract, nor too simple or below the level of the learner's competence. This might necessitate differentiated tasks in order to accommodate the different levels of competence in the same class. Thirdly, Williams and Burden (1997: 20) are of the opinion that there is a distinct relationship between the development of thinking and language and experience. As a result additional language teaching, which is mainly based on memorisation, like the audio-lingual method, will not result in deeper understanding of the language. Lastly, they apply the notions of assimilation and accommodation to learning a new language:

When we receive new input of the language, for example, by listening to a conversation, we need to modify what we already know about the language (accommodation) so as to 'fit' the new information into our existing knowledge (assimilation). In this way our knowledge of how the system of the new language operates gradually develops (Williams & Burden 1997:22).

While observing children to test his theories, Piaget came to realise that young children respond cognitively to the world very differently than adults do. The process of equilibration that he encountered in children was less complex and much more concrete than it was in adults, but he also noticed that the more the child interacts with his environment, the more sophisticated the child's mental capacities became. This allowed the child to move beyond merely responding to the noticeable characteristics of a problem. This led to Piaget's formulation of four stages in cognitive development in which cognitive structures become progressively more complex. (Western Cape Education Department 2006:10; Brown & Desforges 1979; Huitt & Hummel 2003:4; Piaget 1964), as outlined below.

The sensorimotor stage (infancy; birth to 2 years):

During this period intelligence is demonstrated through motor activity without the use of symbols, e.g. speaking or writing. Although the child's knowledge of the world around him is limited, it is expanding rapidly as a result of physical interactions and experiences. Because of his physical development the child starts to develop new intellectual abilities. Some symbolic or language abilities are developed at the end of this stage.

The pre-operational stage (toddler and early childhood up to compulsory school-going age):

This stage is characterised by the use of symbols such as pictures and words to represent ideas and objects. This can be regarded as the beginning of language, of symbolic function and therefore of thought. These new capabilities prepare the child for pre-reading and pre-writing activities. During this period language use matures, and memory and imagination are

developed further. The child will therefore not modify his speech to suit the needs of the listener or the social situation. During this stage the child's use of language is egocentric, which means the child talks only about himself and does not really try to communicate or expect answers from others. In fact, in most cases the child does not even care whether anyone is listening to him. He is thinking aloud (Vygotsky 1962).

The concrete operational stage (generally the primary school years up to early adolescence):

The operations that appear in this stage are concrete operations as they focus on objects and not yet on verbally expressed hypotheses. In this stage a much greater degree of equilibrium between assimilation and accommodation is reached. This stage is characterised by complex logical operations, but still at a concrete level. The learner now displays a logical and systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects. During this stage the child's talk becomes less egocentric and more socialised, although even his socialised speech is not totally free from egocentric thoughts. According to Piaget, it is the emergence of the desire to work with others that causes the egocentric talk to subside (Vygotsky 1962).

The formal operational stage (adolescence and adulthood):

In this stage the adolescent demonstrates intelligence through the logical use of symbols related to abstract concepts. Thought becomes analytical and increasingly complex, and the mind can think logically about abstract propositions. The child becomes concerned with the hypothetical, the future and ideological problems.

Piaget (1964:21) identified four factors that have an influence on the development from one developmental stage to the other, namely maturation, experience, social transmission, and lastly equilibration or self-regulation. Equilibration has been discussed in detail above. Maturation refers to an interior maturation of the nervous system that takes place during the child's development. But, even though it is part of every transformation or change during the child's development, it does not explain why the average ages at which these changes appear vary greatly from one society to another. Psychological research done in various countries has found that, although the order of succession of the different stages of cognitive development is constant, the chronological ages of these stages vary a great deal. Therefore Piaget is of the opinion that the child's experience of objects and physical reality is another factor that plays an important role in the development of cognitive structures. The last factor to have an impact on the cognitive development of the child is social transmission in the form of linguistic transmission or educational transmission. Piaget (1964) warns that the transmission can only be successful if the information transferred via language or

education by an adult is at a level that the child can understand. This means the child must have a structure in place which will allow him to assimilate the information.

The factors of maturation, experience and social transmission should be kept in mind by FAL teachers when teaching a new language to learners. It is not a given that all learners who are in the same grade and more or less the same age find themselves on the same cognitive level. This means that the teacher should be aware of individual differences with regard to cognitive abilities within the group and adjust her teaching and activities accordingly. If the learner is not ready to understand figurative language, it is unfair to expect him to be able to master and use figures of speech or idioms correctly. The learner's experience with the target language will also have an influence on his proficiency in and attitude towards the language. A learner who is regularly exposed to the language outside the classroom will have a better command of the language than the learner who hears it only in the FAL classroom. If the experience with the language is negative, e.g. the learner's parents, FAL teacher or the community has a negative attitude towards the language, or he has been teased about the way he speaks the language, it will have a negative impact on his proficiency in the language.

According to the WCED Literacy and Numeracy Strategy:

It is important to bear in mind that Piaget put forward these stages to help understand the limits or constraints in children's thinking as they grow and develop. They are all too often portrayed as static boxes into which to classify children. From the point of view of a teacher, it is worth bearing in mind that equilibration – the constant, ongoing development of knowledge that results from learners engaging with the world – is the core of Piaget's theory (Western Cape Education Department 2006: 10).

Knowledge of these cognitive developmental stages will lead teachers and parents to challenge the learner's abilities through discovery learning activities, but on the other hand, they should not present material, information or tasks that are too far beyond the learner's level. This will only discourage the learner. The opposite also holds true. If there is no challenge to the learner because the material is too simplistic or the task is too easy, the learner will be bored and lose interest. These activities must give the learner the opportunity to engage with the problems on his own. He must be given the chance to do his own research and by doing this he will be able to construct and reconstruct knowledge for himself. As Piaget regards peer support and interaction superior to adult intervention (Piaget 1964) the teacher should also allow for pair and group work. Constructivism regards the teacher as

a facilitator of knowledge who has the responsibility to present learners with materials, situations and experiences that will allow them to discover new learning.

2.3 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

Lev Vygotsky (1962) did not support Piaget's theory that children learn independently by exploring their environment from the day they are born (Piaget 1964). Neither did he agree with behaviourists that adults are entirely responsible for shaping children's learning by the judicious use of reward and punishment (Williams & Burden 1997). Vygotsky's theory rests on the underlying principle that learning occurs on the social level, within the cultural context. Vygotsky was of the opinion that "children are born into a social world and that learning occurs through interaction with other people" (Williams & Burden 1997:38). It is through this interaction that the child makes his own sense of the world around him. Individual development can only occur within a social world where there is social interaction between peers, or between children and adults, in a historical and cultural context. Tudge and Winterhoff (1993) interpret Vygotsky's development theory as follows:

Children's cognitive development is thus not the product simply of biological maturation, nor of interaction between them and others in their environment (which is the level at which both Piaget and Bandura deal primarily with social factors), but is intricately related to history and culture (Tudge & Winterhoff 1993: 75).

The WCED Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (2006:12) defines cognitive development according to Vygotsky as "the active internalisation of a set of relationships that are to be found originally in real cultural activity, hence the term 'social constructivism'". Nelson (1996) is of the opinion that the individual's cognitive development will vary depending upon the cultural conditions. Individuals will also experience the environment differently at different ages or developmental stages. According to Lantolf and Thorne, Vygotsky's approach to learning and mental development is known as sociocultural theory (SCT): "SCT argues that human mental functioning is fundamentally a mediated process that is organised by cultural artifacts, activities, and concepts" (Lantolf & Thorne 2006:197).

Vygotsky (1978) distinguishes between two levels of development that are present in the child, namely the actual level of development, which manifests itself in what the child can do on his own, and the potential level of development, which is manifested in a child's capabilities with optimal help and guidance from a more knowledgeable other. The gap between these two levels is known as the zone of proximal development (ZPD). This concept refers to the mental possibilities as well as the limitations of a child, but also illustrates the

importance of the mediation of the social world to the child by parents, teachers or more capable peers (Western Cape Education Department 2006; Williams & Burden 1997; Nelson 1996). Rogoff (1990:14) describes the concept of the ZPD as the gap “in which child development proceeds through children’s participation in activities slightly beyond their competence (in their ‘zone of proximal development’) with the assistance of adult or more skilled children.” Lantolf and Aljaafreh (1995: 623) define the zone of proximal development as:

the framework, par excellence, which brings all of the pieces of the learning setting together – the teacher, the learner, their social and cultural history, their goals and motives, as well as the resources available to them, including those that are dialogically constructed together.

During the process of problem solving it is usually a more experienced person who guides, supports and shapes the thoughts and actions of the child. During this process of support the child will internalise the processes and new knowledge that was gained during the process (Donato 1990). Donato also argues that although knowledge is actively constructed by the child, this learning process happens in a number of different ways and with the help of others, but that these others need not necessarily be adults, but can be peers as well.

According to Vygotsky (1978), the cognitive processes occur on two different levels: first on the social plane during interaction with the more knowledgeable or skilled other person, and then on the individual plane when the shared processes are internalised and become part of the child’s schema. The zone of proximal development is therefore a dynamic region of sensitivity to learning new knowledge and skills. This support which helps the learner to move to higher levels of cognition, skills and competence is known as scaffolding. Rogoff (1990) is of the opinion that this interaction between the child and the expert is a process of guided participation, which suggests that both guidance from the expert and participation from the child should be present to ensure the success of the scaffolding process. A crucial element of guided participation is intersubjectivity, which is a shared focus and purpose between the child and the more skilled adult or peer. Another prerequisite for successful guided participation, according to Rogoff and Gardner (1984), is an intelligible context of interaction for both participants, because if the new information is not compatible with the child’s existing knowledge, it will not be assimilated or internalised. Brown (1979:251) calls this “headfitting”: “the distance between the child’s existing knowledge and the new information he or she must acquire is a critical determinant of how successful training will be.” Rogoff also stresses that the expert partner should continually revise the scaffold or support given to the child or novice as his/her capabilities and knowledge develop, which

may lead to the total dismantling of the scaffold. Conversely, if the child does not show any growth in knowledge and skills, it might be a signal to the adult to upgrade the scaffolding.

Although scaffolding usually refers to one-directional help and support from the expert to the novice, Donato (1990) conducted a study to determine how additional language development is brought about through social interaction among additional language learners. Donato (1990:39) hypothesised that “learners can, in certain circumstances, provide the same kind of support and guidance for each other that adults provide children.” The aim of his study was to ascertain how social interaction among additional language speakers in the classroom results in the acquisition of linguistic knowledge by the individual learner. The results of this study showed the following: scaffolding happens routinely when FAL learners work together on language-learning activities; FAL learners have the ability to provide guided support to their peers during interaction in the additional language in ways that are similar to the scaffolding of experts to novices; this collective scaffolding may lead to development of the individual learner’s linguistic competence; learners can expand their own FAL knowledge and extend the linguistic development of their peers during social interaction in the target language. The implication of these findings for the teaching of FAL is in line with the principles of the communicative approach to additional language teaching, namely that language tasks must encourage learners to participate and engage with other learners in order to provide guided support or collective scaffolding. Therefore group work in the FAL classroom will have to go beyond mere opportunities to exchange words or messages to opportunities for collective acquisition of the target language.

Lantolf (2000) argues that under certain circumstances the interaction and support by peers might not be enough. He refers to a study done by Platt and Troudi (in Lantolf 2000) where the results clearly indicate that expert mediation by the teacher was required to assist the learners with some mathematics content. Although he is not against mediation between peers, he argues that for learning everyday functional language, peer assistance might be useful; however, for the effective development of academic language, interaction with an expert, such as the teacher, might be necessary. Van Lier (1996:168), on the other hand, warns that the teacher should not underestimate the role that conversation has to play in language development and should not regard conversing as “almost synonymous with doing nothing”. The concept of the zone of proximal development is now referred to widely in studies about teaching and learning in many subject areas, including mathematics, science, reading, writing and second language learning (e.g. Chaiklin 2003; Dunn & Lantolf 1998; Lantolf & Pavlenko 1995).

Vygotsky (1978) also focuses on the importance of language as a tool in conveying meaning to, and acquiring meaning from, learning activities. Lantolf and Thorne (2006:201) support Vygotsky's view in arguing that "Language is the most pervasive and powerful cultural artifact that humans possess to mediate their connection to the world, to each other and to themselves." In this context, language does not only refer to speech, but also to signs and symbols. Therefore writing, material aids, tools and other cultural artefacts also play an important role in mediating the child's environment for him. Language thus plays an essential part in the mediation of cognition and culture between adults and children (Nelson 1996). Williams and Burden (1997:32) agree with Nelson by stating that language is the tool through which culture is transmitted, thinking develops and learning occurs. Rogoff (1990: 18) concurs that language is a powerful tool for thinking and communication, but she sees communication as more than just words to include both verbal and non-verbal dialogue. Lantolf (2003) regards human language as the most important tool or sign through which the links between us and our world are formed. "Sign-based mediation first is intermental and then becomes intramental as children learn to regulate the mediational tools of their culture and, with this, their own social and mental activity" (Lantolf 2003: 350). When referring to additional language learning, Lantolf explains internalisation as the process through which learners construct a mental representation of what was at one point physically present (acoustic or visual) in external form. Internalisation is described by Frawley (1997) as

the abbreviation of interactive social speech into audible speech to oneself, or *private speech* and ultimately silent speech for oneself, or *inner speech*. Social dialogue condenses into a private dialogue for thinking (Frawley 1997: 95).

Vygotsky (1962) is of the opinion that the relationship between thought and word cannot be understood without a clear understanding of the nature of inner speech. There are quite a number of different interpretations of the meaning of inner speech. Initially, inner speech had been understood as verbal memory, e.g. the silent recital of the alphabet known by heart. Other interpretations see inner speech as "speech minus sound" (Mueller in Vygotsky 1962) or "sub-vocal speech" (Watson in Vygotsky 1962). Watson identifies inner speech with thought which is regarded as inhibited, soundless speech. Vygotsky (1962), on the other hand, argues:

Semantically, we may imagine thought and speech as two intersecting circles. In their overlapping parts, thought and speech coincide to produce what is called verbal thought. Verbal thought, however, does not by any means include all forms of thought or all forms of speech. There is a vast area of thought that has no direct relation to speech (Vygotsky 1962: 47).

Winegar (1997:31) defines Internalisation as “a negotiated process that reorganises the relationship of the individual to her or his social environment and generally carries it into future performance.” Therefore we can regard social constructivism as an appropriate theoretical underpinning to a communicative and whole language approach to language teaching, where it is maintained that a language is learned through the use of language to interact meaningfully with other people.

In considering the social nature of language itself, a social constructivist and social interactionist view to language teaching is supported by the principles of whole language teaching and the communicative approach to additional language teaching. Vygotsky’s approach was also holistic, as he rejected the idea of breaking what is to be learned into smaller parts. He emphasised that meaning should form the essence of any unit of study (Williams & Burden 1997). This is supported by the communicative approach to the teaching of an additional language. The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) suggests a process, text-based and communicative approach to be followed when teaching an additional language. All these approaches require the learners to be actively involved in making sense of the language input. The whole child should be involved in learning a new language. The teacher should, as the facilitator, mediate meaning of oral or written texts by means of extra-lingual tools such as pictures, gestures and a word wall, and not try to teach smaller loose-standing components out of context. It is through this scaffolding process that the teacher will be able to negotiate meaning and provide comprehensible input (Krashen 1985) to the learner’s subconscious language-processing mechanisms. Vygotsky’s theory of learning as a process where an expert leads the child to internalise new knowledge through social interaction has significant implications for additional language teaching. This means that the additional language teacher should be an expert in the target language or at least much more proficient in the language than the learners.

2.4 TEACHER KNOWLEDGE

Teachers’ teaching and the implementation of curricula require a theoretical framework that addresses the knowledge base of teachers and the degree to which their continued professional development and growth is being supported. This also involves teacher learning. In this section the views of Shulman and others views on teacher knowledge, in particular PCK, will be addressed.

Teacher knowledge is often referred to as teacher cognition. According to Borg (2003:81), teacher cognition refers to the “unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what

teachers know, believe, and think". Clark and Peterson (1986), Freeman (2001), Freeman and Richards (1996), and Woods (1996) believe that teachers' knowledge and beliefs are powerful sources of influence on their professional practice and that experience is an important contributor to the development of such knowledge and beliefs. Breen *et al.* (2001) are of the opinion that this cognition is shaped by the experiences teachers have had and in turn shapes what teachers do in the classroom. Richards (1998: 117 - 118) also found that experienced teachers are more skilled at:

- thinking about the subject matter from the learner's perspective;
- having a deep understanding of the subject matter;
- knowing how to present subject matter in appropriate ways; and
- knowing how to integrate language learning with broader curricular goals.

Williams and Burden (1997) argue that it is not only what teachers do which make them good teachers,

but rather the teachers' beliefs: about themselves, about learning and its educational relevance and about learners. At the same time, the consistency with which teachers' actions reflect what they claim to believe would appear to be a vitally important aspect of effective teaching. The notion, therefore, of the teacher-as-reflective practitioner becomes central to our developing perspective (Williams & Burden 1997: 63).

Pajares (1992) is in agreement with Williams and Burden (1997) when he summarises the findings of 35 empirical educational investigations as follows: "All teachers hold beliefs, however defined and labeled, about their work, their students, their subject matter, and their roles and responsibilities" (Pajares 1992: 314). Stern (1983) argues that teachers' beliefs are informed by their knowledge of theory of language teaching:

No language teacher – however strenuously he may deny his interest in theory – can teach a language without a theory of language teaching, even if it is only implicit in value judgements, decisions, and actions, or in the organisational pattern within which he operates (Stern 1983: 27).

The challenge in additional language education is to promote inspired teaching through professionalism. Brown (1993) is of the opinion that

This involves a recognition ... that effective teaching does not originate in a particular theory of language acquisition or approach to language instruction. When teachers invest their methodology of teaching into a single theory or approach, they have abdicated their responsibility for instructional decisions and become passive technicians (Brown 1993: 12).

Shulman (1987: 1) is of the opinion that “while many characterisations of effective teachers exist, most of these dwell on the teacher’s management of the classroom rather than the management of ideas within classroom discourse”. He also believes that the traditional knowledge and skills – basic skills, content knowledge and general pedagogical skills – ignore the complexities and critical features of teaching, such as the “subject matter being taught, the classroom context, the physical and psychological characteristics of the students” (Shulman 1987: 6). Shulman (1987) has identified seven major sources for the teaching knowledge base:

- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;
- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics;
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from working of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and culture;
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds;
- Content knowledge;
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools or the trade” for teachers;
- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding (Shulman 1987: 8).

Shulman believes that the key to distinguishing the knowledge base of teaching lies at the intersection of content and pedagogy, in the capacity of a teacher to transform the content knowledge he or she possesses into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variations in ability and background presented by the students:

The PCK is of special interest because it identifies the distinctive bodies of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners and presented for instruction (Shulman 1987: 15).

PCK is the category of knowledge most likely to distinguish the understanding of the content specialist from that of the pedagogue (Shulman 1987). Norris (1999: 9) describes teacher

pedagogical content knowledge as “the skills and knowledge which a teacher needs to have in order to teach their learning area effectively”. Norris (1999: 47) agrees that successful language teachers need more than just linguistic knowledge to help learners to achieve language outcomes. “The teachers also need pedagogical knowledge to deploy that language to best effect in the classroom. This relates to their skills as a teacher, rather than their language skills.” This pedagogical knowledge includes a good understanding of the general processes of teaching and learning, and knowledge of how to go about providing programmes for students. This knowledge is not static, but continually evolves during the professional life of the teacher. Shulman (1987: 4) describes this growth in teachers’ knowledge as “error, success, and refinement, as teachers progress from novices to highly effective teachers”. Myers (1997: 4) also describes the non-static nature of teacher knowledge as a process “that includes constant personal construction of new professional knowledge, constant personal development of refined professional skills, and constant sorting out of professional value perspectives”. Therefore teachers should be involved in continuous professional development in order to keep up with new knowledge which may become available as a result of research. This professional development can take the form of in-service training provided by the employer, in this case the WCED, or non-government organisations (NGO’s). Teachers should also take responsibility for their own growth and professional development through life-long learning. As Shulman explains, “teachers’ comprehension and knowledge requires a vigorous interaction with ideas ... teaching invokes the exchange of ideas” (Shulman 1987: 13).

In addition to the teacher’s linguistic knowledge, knowledge of language teaching and learning theories and his or her knowledge of language teaching methodologies or PCK (Shulman 1987; Norris 1999; Myers 1997), the teacher should also have knowledge and understanding of the target culture, as this will “hopefully promote better understanding of sociocultural concepts in the language classroom and lead to better language teaching” (Australian Language and Literacy Council 1996: 159). Tedick and Walker (1995) support the promotion of knowledge of the target culture and believe that language is often viewed as object in the classroom, which denies the social nature of language as communication and this view reduces language teaching to a narrow focus on parts and pieces. “Language study is generally decontextualised, unrelated to the lives of students, their school, or the community, and much of language instruction remains grammar-driven and primarily teacher-directed” (Tedick & Walker 1995: 501). Tedick and Tischer (1996: 415) refer to the “constant challenge that second language teachers face in developing and maintaining language proficiency and, at the same time, keeping abreast of current issues related to the individual target cultures taught”. They see the needs of the additional language teacher as

three-fold: “to work on language proficiency [linguistic knowledge], to learn about current topics in the target culture [cultural knowledge], and to enrich pedagogical knowledge”.

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To be effective, today’s additional language teachers are bound to integrate information and communication technologies (ICT) into their practice. Hernández-Ramos (2005) found that teachers’ prior experience of technology in a teacher education programme is positively associated with their use of technology in the classroom. Many teachers, however, have never been exposed to computer-assisted language learning (CALL) during their training, and therefore in-service training programmes have to enable additional language teachers to integrate CALL technology into their classrooms with confidence and knowledge. Learners participate in virtual communities to meet and communicate with people from all over the world, and create their own culture in communication and collaboration (Thorne & Payne 2005). Personal computers equipped with ICT are commonly available in and out of the classroom, making paper-based materials and analog audio and video equipment almost obsolete in most FAL classrooms (Mishan 2005). A number of CALL research studies have shown the efficacy of computer technology on FAL teaching and learning (Kern 1995; Warschauer & Kern 2000; Ducate & Lomicka 2005; Hong 2010). Beatty (2003: 14) reports that the research focus in the CALL literature has shifted from whether to use computer technology for FAL education to “how computers should be used [and] for what purposes”.

Hubbard (2008) explains the importance of the FAL teachers' readiness with regard to the successful implementation of CALL technology in the classroom as follows:

The future of CALL is closely tied to the future of language teacher education because language teachers are pivotal players: they select the tools to support their teaching and determine what CALL applications language learners are exposed to and how learners use them (Hubbard 2008: 176).

In the technology-enhanced FAL teaching and learning environment, it is to the teachers' advantage to integrate computer technology into the classroom. This will be achieved when teachers experience and become familiar with the use of available CALL technologies during their teacher education or in-service training programmes (Hong 2010; Hubbard & Levy 2006; Hughes 2005).

It is therefore essential that additional language teachers have a good knowledge of the target language (linguistic knowledge), language learning and language teaching theories, sociolinguistic knowledge (cultural knowledge), knowledge of the different methodologies of additional language teaching or pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as well as knowledge of the integration of technology into their teaching. Additional language teachers who have these multiple knowledges will be able to make informed choices regarding the language teaching methodology or approach, or combination of methodologies or approaches, which they have to implement in order to achieve success in the additional language classroom.

2.5 SUMMARY

Chapter 2 focused on the discussion of constructivism and social constructivism as the theoretical framework within which first additional language teaching is situated and Shulman's theory of teacher knowledge, especially pedagogical content knowledge.

Piaget's constructivism as a theory of learning emphasises the active participation of the learner in the learning process and the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning. Piaget had identified four stages of cognitive development through which children will grow. During this developmental process learners' cognitive structures become more complex, but he claimed this happens without any support from others. Vygotsky opposes this view as he regards children as being born as social beings who learn through interaction with other people. We focused on the importance of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) in the learning process and the vital role that teachers and other more knowledgeable peers have

to play in guiding the learners through collaboration to reach a higher level of proficiency in the target language.

Shulman emphasises the importance of the teachers' knowledge of how to teach the subject content effectively. PCK enables the teacher to effectively adapt the same content to diverse groups of learners and teaching situations. Part of the teachers' PCK should be knowledge of constructivism and social-constructivism in order to meet the learners where they are at and to facilitate their growth and development to a higher level of knowledge and competence.

In Chapter 3 the literature and South African curricula pertaining to first additional language teaching will be explored.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The teaching of a first additional language (FAL) is a compulsory and integral part of the Intermediate Phase curriculum as prescribed by the Department of Basic Education in the National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) of 2002 and the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) documents of 2011. The principal focus of this study is the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL in Grade 4 – 6 classes in urban schools in the Western Cape.

This chapter will undertake a literature review to give an overview of the existing literature on first additional language teaching. The following aspects pertaining to first additional language teaching will be discussed: South African language policies in general as well as specific language-in-education policies (LiEP); curriculum development in South Africa since 1948 and FAL curriculum development in particular; FAL teaching methodologies and approaches; the use of learning and teaching support materials (LTSM) in the FAL classroom; the FAL teacher's kinds of knowledge and roles in the classroom; and lastly, the researcher will touch on some of the characteristics of the FAL learner.

3.2 LANGUAGE POLICIES

Bamgbose (1991: 109) and Fishman (1974: 79) define language planning as “the organised pursuit of solutions to language problems”, while Djité (1994: 63) adds a further dimension to this definition: “the deliberate choices made by governments or other authorities with regard to the relationship between language and social life”. According to Corson (1990: 141), language policies at national level try to do many things:

- they identify the nation's language needs across the range of communities and cultural groups in it;
- they survey and examine the resources available;
- they identify the role of language in general and of individual languages in particular in the life of the nation;
- they establish strategies necessary for managing and developing language resources; and
- they relate all of these to the best interest of the nation through the operation of some

suitable planning agency.

In a country such as South Africa where, according to Statistics South Africa (2013), some 25 languages are used on a daily basis, the need for a language policy for managing language diversity became evident after the first democratically elected government took office in 1994. This language diversity is the result of the influx of a variety of language and cultural groups over the centuries. The new government was committed to the promotion of constitutional plurilingualism and the protection of language rights as a vehicle to push for social transformation, as reflected in section 29 (2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa 1996a).

Beukes (1991), Alexander (2003), Plüddemann (2002) and Heugh (2002) agree that the language policies of apartheid South Africa gave distinct and unfair advantages to certain languages, which led to an imbalance in our civil society and educational systems by imposing a linguistic disadvantage on the majority of South African learners. From the first Dutch occupation in 1652 and later British rule to the apartheid regime the government's language policies failed to recognise that South Africa is indeed a multilingual country. Beukes further states that "the policy was simply [to] assure the dominance of the language of those who control the state, first Dutch, then English, and lastly Afrikaans" (Beukes, 1991a: 93). The Bantu Education Act of 1953 gave the state control over black education. As a result Afrikaans was enforced in black schools as a language of teaching and learning in secondary school subjects, such as mathematics and accounting as from 1976 in order to further political dominance. A consequence of this decision was the stigmatisation of Afrikaans as "the language of the oppressor" (Heugh 2008; Alexander 2000; Plüddeman 2000). The dual-medium policy met with resistance from teachers, parents and learners, which culminated in the Soweto uprisings of 1976.

Since 1994 and the installation of the first democratic government in South Africa, language policy developments have undergone dramatic changes. Heugh (2002: 449) describes these changes as follows: "Explicit statements of policy have shifted away from the segregationist mould of the previous apartheid government with the widely divergent roles and functions it ascribed to the various languages of the country." During political negotiations the equal status and functions of eleven of the country's languages, in addition to the promotion of respect for, and use of, other languages, including sign language, were acknowledged. McGroarty (2002) is of the opinion that:

Language policies in education represent a critical arena in which a society's expectations for the success of its future members are simultaneously expressed, enabled and constrained. At times, choices about matters such as the language of instruction become controversial, as in the case of bilingual education in the contemporary United States, when such choices appear to contradict commonsense assumptions (McGroarty 2002: 17).

In 1992 the National Language Project (NLP) began to explore the possibilities of multilingual education. The basis of this process was the promotion of multilingualism as a national resource, rather than a problem, for social and national development. As a result the NLP decided on an additive bilingual approach to education, as was implemented in India, Australia and several African countries, as the cornerstone of a new language-in-education policy (LiEP). The Centre for Education Policy Development (CEPD) was tasked to "arrive at a model for language-in-education which will be based on the principles of access, equity and empowerment" (Constable & Musker 1993: 12). On 14 July 1997 the LiEP, based on the principle of additive bilingualism, was announced (Department of Education 1997a).

3.2.1 Language legislation and policies in South Africa

During the apartheid era, prior to 1994, South Africa had two official languages, namely English and Afrikaans, despite the broad spectrum of indigenous and non-indigenous languages that were learnt and spoken in the country. The period after 1990 was characterised by transition and political negotiation to bring apartheid to an end. Issues that were debated included, among others: the political and constitutional rights of the African languages; the need for a lingua franca; the choice of the languages to be used as medium of instruction and as subjects at school; and the role of English as a linking language (Plüddemann, Braam, October & Wababa 2004). Heugh *et al.* (1995) points to the dilemma that confronted the negotiators. On the one hand, there was the reality of a need for a 'language of national unity', which was met by English, and on the other hand, there was a need to free the majority of the population from the previous imperialistic system by developing the indigenous languages. These negotiations culminated in the following pieces of legislation and policies which provide, implicitly or explicitly, a framework for the implementation of progressive multilingual practices in civil society as well as in schools.

The South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996a), addresses the promotion of multilingualism in the following ways:

- All official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and be treated equitably;
- Section 29 (2): All citizens have the right to receive education in the official languages

or language of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable.

The National Education Policy Act, Act 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996b), gives the Minister of Education the right to determine national education policy in conjunction with the provisions of the Constitution, and in accordance with certain principles. Two of these principles are:

- Section 4a(v): the right of every learner to be instructed in the language of his or her choice where this is reasonably practicable;
- Section 4a(viii): the right of every person to use the language and participate in the cultural life of his or her choice within an education institution.

The South African Schools Act, Act 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa 1996c), determines that the governing body of a school should determine the language policy of a school, subject to the National Education Policy Act (Republic of South Africa 1996b), the Constitution (Republic of South Africa 1996a) and any applicable provincial law.

The Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of 14 July 1997, which should be read in conjunction with the National Education Policy Act of 1996, should be seen as part of a continuous process by which policy for language in education is being developed as part of a national language plan. The LiEP (Department of Education 1997a) operates within the following paradigm:

- The Department of Education acknowledges South Africa's cultural diversity and should promote multilingualism, the development of the official languages, and respect for all languages used in the country, including South African Sign Language;
 - The inherited language-in-education policy in South Africa was underpinned by racial and linguistic discrimination, which affected either the access of learners to the education system or their success within it;
 - The new LiEP is an integral part of the new government's strategy of building a non-racial nation in South Africa. It is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, language and region, while at the same time creating an environment in which respect for languages other than one's own would be encouraged;
 - This approach is in line with the global norm of societal and individual
-

multilingualism. Multilingualism should be a defining characteristic of being South African and therefore the learning of more than one language should be general practice and a general principle in our society;

- There is a wide spectrum of viable approaches towards multilingual education, but whichever route is chosen, the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s), while providing access to, and the effective acquisition of, additional language(s). It is therefore the Department's position that an approach of additive bilingualism is to be regarded as the normal orientation of the LiEP;
- The right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the individual. This right should, however, be exercised within the overall framework of the obligation on the education system to promote multilingualism (Department of Education 1997a).

It follows therefore that according to the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) (Department of Education 1997a), the following would be the situation in South African classrooms:

1. All learners shall offer at least one approved language as a subject in Grades 1 and 2 (the first two years of formal schooling for the majority of South African children);
2. From Grade 3 onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and at least one additional approved language as subjects;
3. All languages shall receive equitable time and resource allocation;
4. Promotion during the first four years of schooling is dependent on performance in one language and mathematics, while only a single language requires to be passed from Grade 5 onwards. In the last three years of schooling (Grades 10 – 12), however, two languages must be passed, one on first language level (it may be the learner's home language, but need not be) and the other at second language level. At least one of these languages must be an official language (Department of Education 1997a: 2).

Burroughs (2011: 8) expresses her concern about the fact that, although the LiEP stipulates the language curriculum requirements, it is done in very general terms and "it is immediately apparent that the policy is silent with regard to determining *which* language or languages the child shall be exposed to at school even in the first, critical years of education." Burroughs (2011: 9) refers to data presented by the Department of Education in 2007 indicating the percentages of learners by language of learning and teaching. According to these data,

English became the LoLT for 79,1% of all learners in Grade 4. This trend increased over the remaining school years and in 2007 81,4% of all Grade 12 learners were learning through the medium of English, 12,8% through the medium of Afrikaans and less than 6% of learning took place in an African language. The data also revealed that in Grade 4 English and Afrikaans were identified as the primary languages of the classroom. She ascribes this situation to the “weak guidance provided by the Language in Education Policy”, which merely advises and does not enforce. Although there is a trend to teach learners in their home language in Grades 1 – 3, only about 2% of learners are exposed to the approved additional language in the third grade. Therefore, the majority of learners are expected “to go cold into learning through a new language in Grade 4” (Burroughs 2011: 10).

Naqvi and Coburn (2008) are of the opinion that the place and nature of language planning in the area of education is one key dimension of the relationship between language and social life about which governments make deliberate choices. Kaplan and Baldauf (1992, 2003 in Naqvi & Coburn 2008) identify a number of dimensions of language-in-education planning:

- access policy: policies regarding the designation of languages to be studied and of the levels of education at which language will be studied;
- personnel policy: policies regarding teacher recruitment, professional learning and standards;
- curriculum and community policy: policies regarding what will be taught and how the teaching will be organised, including the specification of outcomes and assessment instruments;
- methods and materials policy: policies regarding prescriptions of methodology and set texts for language study;
- resourcing policy: policies regarding the level of funding to be provided for languages in the education system;
- evaluation policy: policies regarding how the impact of language-in-education policy will be measured and how the effectiveness of policy implementation will be gauged (Naqvi & Coburn 2008: 235).

The Western Cape Provincial School Education Act, Act 12 of 1997, Chapter 6 (44) stipulates that the language policy observed at a public school shall be determined by its governing body as prescribed by sections 6 and 7 of the South African Schools Act or 1996 (Western Cape Province 1997).

The Western Cape Provincial Languages Act, Act 13 of 1998 (Western Cape Province 1998), provides for the establishment of a Western Cape Language Committee to regulate and monitor the use of the three official languages – Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa – by the provincial government of the Western Cape. This act also awards equal status to these three languages and endeavours to elevate their status and advance the use of those indigenous languages of the Western Cape whose status and use have been historically diminished (Western Cape Province 1998).

The National Language Policy Framework of 2003 (Republic of South Africa 2003) takes cognisance of the constitutional provisions on multilingualism and is in line with government's goals for economic, socio-political and educational growth. Its aims are:

- to promote the equitable use of the 11 official languages;
- to facilitate equitable access to government services, knowledge and information;
- to ensure redress for the previously marginalised official indigenous languages;
- to initiate and sustain a vibrant discourse on multilingualism with all language communities;
- to encourage the learning of other official indigenous languages to promote national unity, and linguistic and cultural diversity; and
- to promote good language management for efficient public service administration to meet client expectations and needs (Republic of South Africa 2003: 10).

In June 2004, after five years of consultation, the Western Cape Language Policy (Western Cape Province 2001), the first of its kind in South Africa, was passed by the provincial parliament. The aim of this policy is to create a “Home for All” (Western Cape Province 2001: 2) in the province by ensuring the equal status and use of the three official provincial languages, Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa, as well as South African Sign Language, the Khoi and San languages, and other official South African languages.

The Language Policy in the Primary Schools of the Western Cape (Western Cape Education Department 2002) was introduced in November 2002. The two central recommendations of this policy are, firstly, to implement the policy of mother-tongue-based bilingual education (MTBBE) in Grades R – 6 as from 2004-2005 in all primary schools in the Western Cape Province, and secondly, to institute incentives to guide all children towards electing to take the third official language of the Province as their second additional language (SAL). The importance of multilingual education is highlighted in the Implementation Plan of this policy:

2004: Xhosa L1 cohorts (Grades R-4) to be exposed to Afrikaans in a manner similar to that in which English/Afrikaans L1 learners are exposed to Xhosa under supervision of an Afrikaans speaking L2 specialist. 2004 to 2006: Xhosa L1 cohort (Grade 5) to begin with compulsory Afrikaans Ad2, etc. as for their English/Afrikaans peers in respect of Xhosa, i.e. for up to 5 hours per week (Western Cape Education Department 2002: 5).

In a media release on 22 August 2007 the WCED Language Transformation Plan (Western Cape Education Department 2007b) was introduced to the public. This Language Transformation Plan had as its aim to “promote six years of mother-tongue-based bilingual education (MTBBE) and envisages that all learners in the Western Cape will by the end of Grade 9 have some basic conversational trilingualism” (Western Cape Education Department 2007b:1). This plan also calls on all schools to submit a comprehensive School Language Policy and Implementation Plan to the Department.

Deacon *et al.* (2010: 97) are of the opinion that although a flood of new policies has been drafted and implemented since 1994, the macro-policy research did not necessarily result in large-scale studies. It seems as if the research was often too quickly taken up into official White Papers because of the urgent need for transformation and development, but this resulted in a lack of a more measured and proactive research approach. Despite the above-mentioned shortcoming, a number of researchers are critical of the government’s language-in-education policy. Oosthuizen and Rossouw (2001:659) point to the effects of political compromises around mother-tongue instruction during pre-1994 negotiations, and Du Plessis (2006:100-102) is concerned about the lack of transparency from government on the promotion of bilingual or multilingual education. Unterhalter (2003), Cele (2004) and Alexander (2000), among others, are of the opinion that current language policies continue to advantage English (and Afrikaans) despite the government’s claim that all eleven official languages enjoy equality.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa 1996a) gives official status to the following eleven languages: Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Zitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu. It further recognises the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of South Africa, and tasks the state to take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages. The national government and provincial governments may use at least any two official languages for the purpose of government, but should take into account the usage, practicality and needs and preferences of the population as a whole or in the province concerned. The South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa 1996c) and the Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) (Department of Education 1997a) as

well as the South African Languages Bill (Republic of South Africa 2011b) also advocate the development and promotion of all official languages in the country.

3.2.2 Language distribution and implications

For the purpose of this study I will focus on the language statistics of the Western Cape and the City of Cape Town. Table 3.1 (Statistics South Africa 2013) shows the numbers of the different Western Cape population groups speaking each of the official languages of South Africa as their first home language (language most often spoken in the household) at the time of Census 2011. The home language that was spoken by most people in the Western Cape was Afrikaans. It was spoken by 2 820 643 people. The second most popular home language is isiXhosa, which was spoken by 1 403 233 of the Western Cape inhabitants. English is the third most spoken first home language with 1 149 058 speakers. In 1996 isiXhosa was the third most frequently spoken first home language in the Western Cape, but by the time of the 2001 census it had overtaken English as the second most frequently spoken first home language. This increase in the percentage of isiXhosa first home language speakers in the Western Cape over the period of fifteen years may be attributed to the phenomenon of inter-provincial migration. During the period from 1996 to 2001 a total of 184 971 migrants from other provinces settled in the Western Cape (Smith 2005). These statistics clearly indicate that the three languages mostly spoken as home languages in the Western Cape are Afrikaans, isiXhosa and English, and they have therefore been declared the three official languages of the province, in accordance with the Constitution (Republic of South Africa 1996a) and the South African Languages Bill (Republic of South Africa 2011b).

TABLE 3.1: Western Cape distribution of home language by population in 2011

Western Cape	Black African	Coloured	Indian or Asian	White	Other	TOTAL
Afrikaans	126 400	2 173 137	11 479	489 562	20 065	2 820 643
English	122 967	584 762	40 292	368 489	32 539	1 149 058
IsiNdebele	8 800	3 880	279	1 403	877	138 503
IsiXhosa	1 389 159	9 299	783	2 263	1 729	1 403 233
IsiZulu	21 175	2 348	102	586	423	24 634
Sepedi	6 573	1 127	32	315	98	8 145
Sesotho	53 093	7 775	194	1 985	1 019	64 066
Setswana	10 615	11 367	115	2 130	307	24 534
Sign language	13 496	7 227	126	1 173	149	22 171
SiSwati	2 257	502	10	215	224	3 208

Western Cape	Black African	Coloured	Indian or Asian	White	Other	TOTAL
Tshivenda	2 743	1 205	35	240	193	4 416
Xitsonga	7 464	337	44	323	985	9 153
Other	75 419	1 782	4 637	12 342	32 938	127 118
Unspecified	-	-	-	-	-	
Not applicable	72 388	35 656	2 635	34 028	2 423	147 130

Source: Census 2011, Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa 2013)

As this study focuses on urban primary schools in the Western Cape, the following table is of importance when discussing the language policies and language plans of the WCED and primary schools in the Cape Town metropolitan area. Table 3.2 (Statistics South Africa 2013) reflects the distribution of official languages spoken as home languages in the City of Cape Town at the time of Census 2011 (Statistics South Africa 2013). The same trend with regard to home language is reflected in the statistics for the City of Cape Town as for the Western Cape. This may be attributed to rural-urban and inter-provincial migration (Smith 2005).

TABLE 3.2: Distribution of home languages most spoken in the City of Cape Town in 2011

Afrikaans	isiXhosa	English	Sesotho	isiZulu	Sign Language	Setswana	isiNdebele
1 307 140	1 092 224	1 040 229	35 979	19 699	15 162	15 120	11 993

Source: Census 2011, Statistics South Africa (2013)

Despite Afrikaans being the language mostly spoken as home language both in the Western Cape and the City of Cape Town, and isiXhosa the second most spoken home language in the City of Cape Town, the medium of instruction of most schools within the Cape Metropole boundaries does not reflect this demographic. The reality is that in most Grade 4 –7 classes only one, or at most two, official languages are used as LoLT and most learners are exposed only to a first additional language. In urban primary schools of the WCED in the Cape Metropole the statistics are as follows: English-medium schools: 269; Afrikaans-medium schools: 87; isiXhosa-medium schools: 0; Afrikaans/English-medium schools: 362; Afrikaans/English/isiXhosa-medium schools: 14; English/isiXhosa-medium schools: 99; Afrikaans/isiXhosa-medium schools: 1. The WCED data reflect that 332 urban primary schools offer Afrikaans as FAL, 363 schools offer English FAL, and only 19 schools offer isiXhosa FAL (Galiem 2014).

TABLE 3.3: Distribution of WCED urban primary schools language options (Western Cape Education Department 2013)

LoLT Eng	LoLT Afr	LoLT Xhosa	LoLT Afr/Eng	LoLT Afr/Eng/ Xhosa	LoLT Eng/Xho	LoLT Afr/Xho	Afr FAL	Eng FAL	Xho FAL
269	87	0	268	14	99	1	332	363	0

(Source: Galiem 2014)

Brook Napier (2011: 62) describes Afrikaans as being “surprisingly resilient” both as the home language of white Afrikaners and of people of mixed ancestry (formerly classified as Coloureds) and it still remains useful if not essential for employment. Afrikaans is still the predominant home language in the traditionally Afrikaans-speaking provinces. Alexander and Heugh (1999) and Norval (1998) are of the opinion that the Afrikaners shifted from a segregationist position to that of a minority entitled to constitutional protection, enabling Afrikaans to prevail. Afrikaans, not English, remains the second language of large numbers of Africans, and Afrikaans is still offered as second language in most English-medium schools.

3.2.3 Implementation of language-in-education policies in WCED schools

According to McLaughlin (1998:70), the “implementation problem” already existed in the early 1970s in the USA. The Rand Change Agent study (McLaughlin 1998:71) found that “*it is exceedingly difficult for policy to change practice*” and that even if teachers in a particular site might be eager to embrace new policies, these policies might not be implemented because of a lack of support from their institution. In the case of Belgium it is the duty of the government to outline the essential education policy, but the implementation of the policy is the responsibility of the three language communities or regions, namely the Dutch-speaking, French-speaking and German-speaking communities (Henkes 2000:56). This system is not without its own problems, as De Cock (2006:3) notes that, “although the Flemish educational system reflects this positive attitude towards foreign languages, some languages appear to be more privileged than others.” In South Africa a similar positive attitude towards all eleven official languages is evident from the legislation and policies that are in place, but whether these policies are being effectively implemented and whether all languages enjoy equal status are questions raised by many researchers (Alexander 2003; Plüddemann *et al.* 2004; Beukes 2008; Braam 2004; Busch 2010).

Although the emphasis during the transitional years after 1994 was on the rapid installation of democratic laws and policies, Brook Napier (2011) is of the opinion that the focus soon shifted to

implementation mechanisms and critique of the early policies, as well as new policies designed to rectify some of the problems encountered in the first decade of democracy. While the initial legislation laid the foundation for a new multilingual society with possibilities for linguistic equity and equality for all races and groups, the question arose as to whether democratic language policies could effect lasting change, or whether the age-old patterns of status quo and domination would persist with only superficial adherence to new policies (Brook Napier 2011: 58).

She is adamant that by the early 2000s the ambitious language and language-in-education policies were not able to eradicate patterns of language domination and inequality. Kamwangamalu (2000) expresses his concern about the lack of progress with the implementation of the LiEP in schools as follows:

Six years after the policy was enshrined in the country's new constitution, it seems that not much progress has been made yet in attempts to implement the policy, especially with respect to the issue of mother-tongue education. Rather, the status quo prevails: English and Afrikaans remain the media of learning in English-medium and Afrikaans-medium schools, respectively, much as they were in the apartheid era. The African languages offered as media of learning from first through fourth grades in predominantly black schools, after which English – not Afrikaans because of its association with apartheid – takes over as the instructional medium (Kamwangamalu 2000: 55).

Beukes (2008: 13) concurs with both Brook Napier and Kamwangamalu when she ascribes the significant gaps between language policy and effective implementation to the “government's ineffective management of language matters” and Heugh (2008: 361) notes that “after new elections in 1999, implementation of the new language policy was arrested.” Sookrajh and Joshua (2009: 324) explain the reason for the poor implementation of the language policy as follows: “while the policy document was disseminated, measures were not taken so that meaningful implementation could take place in rural schools, as these schools lack essential guidelines to develop meaningful policies”. Pretorius (2003: 6) accounts for these gaps between policy and implementation as deriving from “the pursuit of heavily contested, ideologically loaded, transformation goals”. Busch (2010: 284) is of the opinion that “the value ascribed to particular language practices cannot be understood in isolation from the people who employ them or the larger networks and social relationships in which they are engaged”. Heugh (2002) argues that in the era of globalisation there are other forces at play which are generally opposing multilingualism. Therefore it should not be surprising that tensions in language policy development and implementation are beginning to manifest themselves.

In reaction to this tardy progress of implementation of the language-in-education policies, the Minister of Education, Dr Pandor, announced in 2005 that the teaching of indigenous languages would be required in all schools. This had little impact. “In fact, in many suburban, former white schools where some indigenous languages had initially been introduced, few were still offered, many were replaced with demand for Afrikaans for its work-related usefulness” (Brook Napier 2008: 64). Beukes (1991b: 89) is of the opinion that the language teaching profession has a crucial role to play in “*deligitimating linguistic inequality*” because of the dynamic relationship between language policy and social structure. Tollefson (1991) describes this fundamental link between language policy and education as follows:

Language education is the key to understanding many aspects of social organization, including the structure of the labour force, ethnic and linguistic conflict, and the allocation of economic resources. Also because education in most parts of the world is subject to explicit policy decisions by governmental bodies, the impact of the policy approach to solving language problems is starkly visible in language education (Tollefson 1991: 7).

The LiEP of the Department of Education (1997a) states very clearly that the home language and a first additional language should take priority in primary education through the process of additive bilingualism. Although “the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s) while providing access to effective acquisition of additional language(s)”, Burroughs (2011) is of the opinion that current practices in schools do not support or strengthen the home language of most learners, nor do they create opportunities for the effective learning of an additional language. The WCED Language-in-Education Transformation Plan (Western Cape Education Department 2007a: 5) states that all three official languages spoken in the province, namely, Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa, should be promoted and developed on an equitable basis. The Language-in-education Policy of the Department of Education (1997a) emphasises the importance of additional language teaching, “while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s).” Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002) adheres to this policy by ruling that the additional language should be introduced as a subject in Grade 1, and makes a distinction between home and additional languages, all learners are expected to achieve the same outcomes, although at different levels (Murray 2002:441). However, despite all these policies to promote multilingualism, additive bilingualism and the equity of all 11 official languages of South Africa in the schooling system, it seems as if the implementation of these policies is not enforced.

According to Alexander (2000), the Language-in-Education Policy of 1997 is committed to an additive bilingualism approach as the norm in all South African schools:

This implies, firstly, a commitment to what used to be called “mother-tongue instruction”, i.e., L1-medium education, under the most favourable circumstances; secondly, parallel-medium schools in most situations, for economic as well as political and cultural (“nation-building”) reasons; thirdly, dual-medium schools as the ideal, certainly for the next two or three generations, i.e., until such time as the African languages can hold their own with English and Afrikaans in high-status functions throughout the economy and the society (Alexander, 2000:11).

The broad interpretation of an additive bilingualism approach to language-in-education as derived from the psycholinguistic theory developed mainly by Cummins is that the learner should learn through the medium of his or her mother tongue (or L1) throughout his educational career and that another language should be added on. Cummins (1983) and Fishman (1976) distinguish between “traditional” and “enrichment” programmes with regard to an additive bilingual approach to the use of language in teaching. In the traditional programmes the learner’s home language is used as a temporary bridge to assist the learner to keep up with the academic content while acquiring proficiency in the language of learning, whereas the enrichment programmes use the learner’s home language for a much longer period in order to develop bilingualism. Cummins (1996), Baker (2001) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1981) postulate that a child’s second language competence is partly dependent on the level of competence already achieved in the first language and that a second language should be added to the learner’s store of languages without any loss of competence in the first language. Braam (2004, 3) describes additive bilingualism as an approach whereby “the home language of learners should be encouraged as the foundation for learning additional languages.” Lockett’s (1992: 14) interpretation of additive bilingualism as “the gaining of competence in a second language while the first language is maintained” concurs with Braam’s view. Heugh (2008, 363) describes the language model used in South Africa, where there is an early exit from the L1 and transition to English for African and Afrikaans learners, as an “early-exit transitional bilingual” model, which differs from the intention of the language policy to re-introduce the principle and right of L1 education. Lightbown and Spada (1999: 164) warn against starting the additional language too early. They argue that subtractive bilingualism may have lasting negative consequences and that a good foundation in the learner’s first language, including the development of literacy, is a sound base to build on.

Despite the existing policies, research conducted by the Report of the President’s Education Initiative Project (1999), and Plüddemann *et al.* (2004) show that English is favoured as language of learning and teaching (LoLT) above all other languages in South Africa. Plüddemann *et al.* (2004), Braam (2004) and Da Rocha (2010) are concerned about the marginalisation of Afrikaans and isiXhosa as languages of learning and teaching in Western Cape primary schools, while the schooling system supports the dominance of English.

According to a study done by Plüddemann *et al.* (2004: 32), “almost half of all schools [in the Western Cape] do not have a written language policy” and of those that do have a language policy, “[a] minority of schools (14%) have reportedly changed their language policies and practices in the last decade”. A Western Cape Language Survey conducted on the implementation of the LiEP revealed that out of a sample of 43 Western Cape primary schools, only 8 schools reportedly changed their School Language Policy to fall in line with the requirements of the LiEP (Plüddemann 2002).

Alexander (2000: 11) and Heugh *et al.* (1995: 42) regard the political history of so-called mother-tongue instruction under the apartheid regime as the major reason for the resistance to Afrikaans and the favouring of English as the language of power, “unity” and “liberation”. L1 medium of instruction is regarded by most black people as inferior and racist, and this is seen as one of the greatest obstacles to the successful implementation of a policy of multilingualism and multilingual education (Alexander 2000; Plüddemann 2000; Buthelezi 2002; Ramphela 2008). According to Schuring and Calteaux (1997: 17) increasing numbers of speakers of indigenous African languages see English as “the language of prestige and something to be aspired to”; other studies such as those by De Klerk (1996) and Coetzee van Rooy (2000) concur with this finding. A study conducted by da Rocha (2010: 28) at an urban primary school on the Cape Flats found that the Afrikaans-speaking parents have a negative attitude towards Afrikaans and do not regard Afrikaans as a language of value and “these parents’ plan of action for their children would be to enrol them at English-medium schools because of their resistance to Afrikaans”. For these reasons we find large numbers of non-mother-tongue speakers of English in English-medium schools/classes, where these learners are being instructed in English, even though this is not their home language.

The results of a study done by Howie *et al.* (2008) on the performance of South African learners in Grades 4 and 5 in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) revealed that the LiEP has not been uniformly implemented, nor advocated. According to the policy, mother-tongue education is compulsory in the Foundation Phase (Grades 1 to 3). The policy prescribes a switch to either English or Afrikaans as language of instruction in Grade 4. There are different reasons for the varying implementation of the policy, namely that African parents insist that their children be taught in English from Grade 1, or it might not be practical for an urban school to offer an indigenous language because of the variety of languages in the catchment area and therefore the school offers only English or Afrikaans as medium of instruction from Grade 1. The implication of this situation for First Additional Language teaching is far reaching. A study done by Plüddemann *et al.* (2004: 60) in urban WCED primary schools showed that

the majority [of learners] do not only have no curricular access to their home language (isiXhosa), but are compelled to take their second language (English) at first-language level and their third language (Afrikaans) at second-language level – a classic case of subtractive multilingualism.

Luckett (1992), along with Cummins (1996), argues that subtractive multilingualism results in many African learners struggling, both linguistically and with their cultural identity, in previously white, Coloured and Indian English-medium schools, because a second language is learned at the expense of the first language, which it gradually or totally replaces. In many schools on the Cape Flats the situation is exactly the same for learners from the Coloured community, whose home language is Afrikaans, but the LoLT of the school is English. In the case of a school that offers only Afrikaans as medium of instruction, all learners will then be taught English as First Additional Language, whether it is their 'second' language or not. The same holds true for the scenario where the only medium of instruction of the school is English. In the case of urban primary schools in the Western Cape the reality is that most of the schools offer only English as LoLT, in which case Afrikaans will be offered as the only first additional language.

According to Kamwangamalu (2000), there are two points of view regarding mother-tongue education (MTE). On the one hand, there are those who support MTE and maintain "that effective literacy acquisition and second-language proficiency depend on well-developed first-language proficiency" (2000: 122). Ramphela (2009), Le Cordeur (2011), Heugh (2008), Plüddemann *et al.* (2004) and Alexander (2003) are all proponents of MTE. Ramphela writes:

There is overwhelming evidence that learning through the first language or mother tongue helps to anchor learning in the child's immediate environment: family, community and everyday interactions ... It provides the anchor for better and deeper learning by linking it to everyday life and one's own identity (Ramphela 2009:11).

Those who are opposed to MTE hold the view that research on non-mother-tongue education is inconclusive and that there are just as many studies that report on the ineffectiveness of MTE as studies that indicate MTE is effective. One of the arguments in support of the latter point of view is that it is economically impossible for countries to provide each child with an education in his or her mother tongue. Gupta (1997) argues that MTE might not always be desirable. In some instances it might be difficult to determine the mother tongue, especially where children grow up with more than one mother tongue. MTE is also divisive, especially where language is linked to social class: "Promoting it will result in extensive separation of ethnic groups in the education system" (Gupta 1997:500).

Murray (2002: 444-445) is of the opinion that the goals of South Africa's multilingual LiEP are hard to take issue with, but that they are difficult to achieve in practice. To implement and develop multilingualism as a resource, considerable human and material resources will be required. At some schools new teachers need to be appointed, at others new textbooks and library materials will have to be purchased, and in most cases the timetable must be adjusted to allow for more languages. It seems to be unlikely that these resources will be made available, considering the current economic climate of fiscal conservatism. With the responsibility of language policy decisions in the hands of schools, English has become even more invasive as the LoLT and there is a strong possibility that multilingualism will be reduced to a few language-awareness activities in the English class and the use of code-switching in the content subjects. In these schools Afrikaans has become the prominent first additional language, as is confirmed by the article in *Times LIVE* (Govender 2012): "Xhosa, Zulu being axed at state schools." According to this article, most former Model C primary schools in which English is the LoLT have scrapped African languages. As a result of this decision, learners now have to study Afrikaans as their first additional language. These schools will not be in violation of the new curriculum requirements of CAPS, where learners in the intermediate phase are required to take only two languages: a home language and a first additional language.

3.3 FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE CURRICULUM IN THE INTERMEDIATE PHASE

3.3.1 What is a curriculum?

The word "curriculum" has its origins in Latin and means "a course for racing" (Yero 2010) or "a running, race, lap around the track, course" (Glare 2000). This definition in terms of a race or marathon with distance markers, signposts, water stations and officials and coaches along the route is a metaphor for what the curriculum has become in educational terms (Wilson 2005). Yero (2010) is of the opinion that when people use the word curriculum, they are generally referring to "the *content* chosen to be taught." A curriculum is, however, more than the specific items listed in the official curriculum guide and should not be equated with a syllabus which, according to Curzon (1985), is only really concerned with content. Kerr's definition of curriculum is: "All the learning which is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried on in groups or individually, inside or outside the school" (in Kelly 1983:10); this is already a departure from a content-based description and is supported by Wheeler's (1967:15) proposal that by "'curriculum' we mean the planned experiences offered to the learner under the guidance of the school". The multiple definitions of curriculum

offered by Oliva (in Wilson 2005:1) are very comprehensive and describe a curriculum as more than just a written statement. Yet, these definitions are also couched in terms of what the learners experience. According to Oliva, a curriculum is:

- That which is taught in schools
- A set of subjects
- Content
- A program of studies
- A set of materials
- A sequence of courses
- A set of performance objectives
- A course of study
- Everything that goes on within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships
- Everything that is planned by school personnel
- A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school
- That which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling (Oliva in Wilson 2005:1).

Stenhouse (1975: 4) argues that there is even more to curriculum than just this. “A curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice.” In their review of the RNCS (Department of Education 2009: 15) the task team supports Donnelly’s (2005:8) criteria for considering a curriculum as “the extent to which they [Department of Education] make available to teachers statements which are clear, succinct, unambiguous, measurable, and based on essential learning as represented by subject disciplines”. In the case of national curricula, the government must therefore be prepared to take responsibility for all aspects of the curriculum. According to Jenkins and Shipman (1976), this responsibility exists on three levels:

A curriculum is the formulation and implementation of an educational proposal to be taught and learned within a school or other institution and for which that institution accepts responsibility at three levels: its rationale, its actual implementation and its effects (Jenkins & Shipman 1976: 27).

It is important to take cognisance of the fact that not all the effects of a curriculum can be planned for. This unintended learning that occurs through the implementation of the curriculum is referred to as the hidden curriculum. The hidden curriculum does not only

pertain to content; it can manifest in other ways as well, e.g. when a teacher spends a lot less time on a certain topic, the learners might get the idea that that particular section of the work is not important, or if a certain part of the work is not assessed students may get the unintended message that the work is not important. Longstreet and Shane (1993: 46) define the hidden or covert curriculum as follows: “the ‘hidden curriculum’ ... refers to the kinds of learnings children derive from the very nature and organisational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviors and attitudes of teachers and administrators”. Eisner (in Neary 2002:46) draws attention to the negative sides of social interactions between teachers and learners in navigating through the curriculum: “The functions of the hidden curriculum have been variously identified as the inculcation of values, political socialisation, training in obedience and docility, the perpetuation of the class structure – functions that may be characterised as social control.” The hidden curriculum may, however, also include positive messages, depending on the model provided.

Eisner (1994), an educational theorist, coined the term ‘explicit’ curriculum, which is similar to Cuban’s ‘official’ and ‘taught’ curricula. Eisner suggests that the explicit curriculum is a small part of what schools actually teach. The other part of what is taught at schools is referred to as the ‘implicit’ curriculum, which can be equated with Longstreet and Shane’s hidden curriculum. Eisner (1994) describes the implicit curriculum as follows:

The implicit curriculum of the school is what it teaches because of the kind of place it is. And the school is that kind of place [because of] various approaches to teaching ... the kind of rewards system that it uses ... the organizational structure it employs to sustain its existence ... the physical characteristics of the school plant ... the furniture it uses and the surroundings it creates. These characteristics constitute some of the dominant components of the school’s implicit curriculum. ... These features are ... intuitively recognized by parents, students, and teachers ... because they are salient and pervasive features of schooling, what they teach may be among the most important lessons a child learns (Eisner 1994: 76-77).

National curricula and school mission statements often claim to develop the whole child. Yero (2010), however, is of the opinion that it is the official curriculum and the tests that hold teachers and learners accountable to that curriculum that drive the everyday functioning of schools. Cuban (1995) does not support the belief that a well-defined curriculum determines what is taught and learned in a school. He differentiates between four different curricula that are in use in schools.

- The official curriculum is what state and district officials set forth in curriculum frameworks and courses of study. They expect teachers to teach it; they assume students will learn it.

- The taught curriculum is what teachers, working alone in their rooms, actually choose to teach. These choices made by teachers depend on their own knowledge of the subject they teach, their own teaching experience, whether they like the subject or not as well as their attitude towards the learners they have to teach. Therefore the taught curriculum might not be exactly the same as what is prescribed by the state or district in the official curriculum.
- The learned curriculum. The results of tests and exams are not the only indication of what learners have learned. Learners learn many unplanned lessons embedded in the environment of the classroom. The learned curriculum can also be referred to as the received curriculum, which refers to those things that learners actually take out of the classroom; those concepts and content that are truly learned and remembered.
- The tested curriculum. What is tested is a limited part of what is intended by policy makers, taught by teachers, and learned by students. Cuban is of the opinion that the less input the teacher has into the construction of the assessment, the worse the fit between the other curriculums and what is tested (Cuban 1995: 4-11).

Eisner (1994) is also of the opinion that what curriculum designers or teachers choose to leave out of the curriculum is just as important as what they choose to include. The part of the curriculum that is left out for some or other reason is known as the null curriculum and supports the implicit curriculum

It is my thesis that what schools do not teach may be as important as what they do teach. Ignorance is not simply a neutral void; ...The absence of a set of considerations, or perspectives, or the inability to use certain processes for appraising a context biases the evidence one is able to take into account (Eisner 1994:83).

There might be various reasons for these choices. The curriculum designers and/or teachers might have their own beliefs about what is important or not in the official curriculum. If they do not have enough time to 'cover' the whole curriculum, they will choose those concepts they consider more important, or feel more comfortable about teaching, and leave out the rest. Teachers often choose topics or aspects of the curriculum that they believe the learners might find more interesting. According to Yero (2010), the motive for including certain aspects could be the current mindset, worldview or the paradigm of the culture. The goals and big ideas, such as the paradigm shift, might be stated in broad terms and mentioned at the beginning of each section of the curriculum, but the content still remains as small chunks or bits of information and skills to be learned.

No curriculum can remain static for decades and therefore the notion of curriculum reform as an iterative process is widely accepted. The implementation of any new curriculum is, however, dependent on the teachers who will implement it. How teachers make sense of the curriculum, what they oppose, what they regard as assisting them makes a difference. Fullan (2001) points out that

attempting to introduce curriculum reform without thinking through the implications for teachers and their classroom practice is likely to collide with very different understandings and result in insecurity and instability in the system. Success of a curriculum initiative is largely determined by *what teachers think* about the intended changes (Fullan 2001 in Department of Education 2009: 16).

In conclusion, we can summarise educators' expectations of a curriculum as follows:

- The curriculum is concerned with planned and unplanned experiences;
- The curriculum should be transparent and communicated to others;
- The curriculum should be open to scrutiny;
- Institutions or curriculum designers must accept responsibility for curriculum intentions and effects.

3.3.2 Education in South Africa before 1994

Before 1994 the South African education landscaped was marked by racial and ethnic segregation. Separate white and Coloured education departments were further divided along linguistic lines, each with its own Afrikaans- and English-medium schools, with some dual- or parallel-medium schools. The schools in the Department of Indian Education had English as medium of instruction, while the black schools had their own dispensation. The black schools that fell under the administration of the then apartheid government were administered by the Department of Education and Training (DET) and the rest fell under the different homeland education departments (Murray 2002).

From 1953 educational opportunities were not equal for all learners in South Africa. In this year the policy of Bantu Education was introduced by the then apartheid government, providing inferior educational opportunities designed for black children. The aim was

to mould both black and white children into apartheid citizens with values appropriate to this society. To achieve this, black children were exposed to a curriculum that taught them vocational skills and how to carry out instructions, to prepare them to be subordinate and fit will in a white-dominated society. White children were provided opportunities to become well educated academically,

learned how to give instructions, and went on to become engineers and managers. Education was used by the apartheid government to strengthen policies of separate development (Buthelezi 2002: 5).

Rembe (2005: 112-113) agrees with Buthelezi when he describes the inequalities in the education system as follows: “Even where the syllabus was almost the same, there were differences in the preparation and qualifications of teachers, and the provision of essential resources such as libraries, textbooks, laboratories and other teaching and learning materials.” The curriculum of that time was examination driven and the emphasis was on memorisation and rote learning as opposed to the development of critical thinking, reasoning, reflection and understanding. The curriculum failed to prepare the learners for the world of work and did not respond to the needs of the labour market.

White, Indian and Coloured learners were mainly taught in their home language, i.e. English or Afrikaans. These home languages were also the official languages of the state and the other official language was offered as a second language. In 1975 the so-called 50:50 policy was introduced. Black learners had eight years of compulsory mother-tongue education (MTE), which was followed by a form of apartheid dual-medium education. This meant that the medium of instruction for half of the subjects taught in black high schools, including mathematics, was Afrikaans and for the other half it was English (Plüddeman *et al.* 2004). The fact that the learners now had to write examinations for these subjects in Afrikaans as well resulted in high failure rates. Learners, teachers and parents rejected this ruling and after negotiations failed, the 1976 Soweto student uprising took place. This attack on the education system forced the government to revise their plan to enforce the use of Afrikaans as LoLT. After 1979 the language situation in all black schools was fairly uniform: learners received instruction in an African language, their mother tongue, for the first four years of schooling; after that the schools could choose their own medium of instruction. Almost all the DET schools opted for English as medium of instruction. Black learners were generally introduced to English in Grade 2 and they began to learn Afrikaans in Grade 4 (Rembe 2005; Heugh 2002). According to MacDonald (in Murray 2002), research results from the Threshold Project, a research project conducted in the late 1980s, revealed that neither learners nor the teachers could cope with a transition to English as LoLT in Grade 5.

3.3.3 Curriculum development in South Africa: 1994 - 2003

The democratically elected government of 1994 was not only faced with language problems, but also problems regarding education such as the provision of equal access to schools for learners from all racial groups in South Africa, equal education opportunities for all learners,

irrelevant curricula, inadequate finances and educational materials and resources, a sudden explosion in enrolment numbers and a shortage of well-qualified teachers (Botha 2002). Shortly after the election in 1994 the National Education and Training Forum began with the process of curriculum change. The main aim of this process was to lay the foundations for a single national core syllabus (Department of Education 2002a). The task team responsible for reviewing the RNCS identified the two overarching aims of the national curriculum as follows:

- It needs to satisfy the general aim of nation building and setting out the philosophy underpinning the education system. This aim should be based on national priorities and should encompass principles such as the Critical and Developmental Outcomes in the National Curriculum Statement or General Aims;
- It also needs to address the specific aim of selecting socially valued knowledge as well as overarching pedagogical principles, to provide clarity for teachers and other education stakeholders around the knowledge and teaching expectations of the curriculum. These are referred to as the Specific Aims (Department of Education 2009: 11).

The notion of a national curriculum was a new concept that coincided with the birth of a new democracy. In order to respond to the new nation's needs, the new national curriculum had to play a multitude of roles. According to the Department of Education (Department of Education 2009: 11) it had to:

- Promote the new Constitution;
- Rebuild a divided nation;
- Establish and promote a sense of national identity in general but particularly for a troubled education sector (17 largely race-based education departments with several different curricula);
- Be inclusive in the broad and narrow sense of the term;
- Offer equal educational opportunities for all;
- Inspire a constituency that had been oppressed by the very nature of the previous education dispensations and policies;
- Establish the socially valued knowledge to be transmitted to following generations.

In response to the above set of criteria, Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was launched in March 1997, with implementation in Grade 1 scheduled for 1998 and Grade 7 in 1999. According to Young (2001), there were two reasons for the attempt to develop an OBE-based curriculum:

- It was new and undoubtedly represented a 'clean break' with the old apartheid curricula, in particular its heavy content basis;
- In the form in which it was adopted in South Africa, OBE has been associated with learner centredness, 'freeing teachers', and the idea that 'everyone can succeed'; it therefore appeared to fit with the post-apartheid emphasis on democratic participation and access (Young 2001: 33).

This new curriculum had three design features. Firstly, it was an outcomes-based curriculum and this feature was emphasised to such an extent that outcomes-based education became synonymous with C2005. The second design feature was an integrated knowledge system which was operationalised through the introduction of eight learning areas for Grades 1 to 9 instead of school subjects. The third feature was the promotion of learner-centred pedagogy in the form of facilitation, learning by discovery and group work (Harley & Wedekind 2004). Some of the other changes included:

- teachers became facilitators and educators;
- pupils and students became learners;
- teaching plans for a year became learning programmes.

Despite the fact that this new curriculum was accepted positively by most teachers and the media, according to the Department of Education (2009: 12), others like Harley and Wedekind (2004) maintain that the schools responded to C2005 in very different ways. Many did question the theoretical basis, the quality of the actual design, standards, scope, depth and content. Young (2001: 34) lists the complex nature of the elements of C2005 as follows: "the 66 specific outcomes, the range statements, the assessment criteria, the performance indicators, the phase organisers, and the expected levels of performance." Teachers were totally overwhelmed by the complexity of the new curriculum, with the result that teachers over-specified requirements for students in the form of tasks, so that students became task-oriented rather than syllabus-oriented (Young 2001). C2005 was quite complex for teachers to understand and implement effectively. In order to navigate through the curriculum for each of the eight learning areas, the teacher had to have a very thorough knowledge and understanding of all the different terms. Chisholm (2003: 273) comments on the difficulties

encountered with the complexity of the curriculum as follows: “evidence was beginning to emerge that not only schools and teachers, but also informed commentators such as those in Education Policy Units, were struggling with the terminology involved in mastering the new curriculum.”

C2005 provided for eight Learning Areas to replace subjects in the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 – 6), namely: Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC); Human and Social Sciences (HSS); Technology (Tech); Mathematical Literacy, Mathematics and Mathematical Sciences (MLMMS); Natural Sciences (NS); Arts and Culture (AC); Economic and Management Sciences (EMS); and Life Orientation (LO). The introduction of learning areas would assist with the integration of occupational and disciplinary knowledge. Young (2001: 33) is of the opinion that, although “most people would endorse the broad educational goal of integrating the everyday experience of students with what they learn in school, it appears incredibly and perhaps unrealistically ambitious.” He is convinced that the decision to move away from subjects and towards learning areas might have been based on the political association with the divisive apartheid curriculum and its narrow and highly prescriptive content rather than on a more critical examination of alternative curriculum principles.

The Critical Outcomes were generic cross-field outcomes which underpinned the Constitution. These seven outcomes would ensure that learners gained the skills, knowledge and values that would allow them to contribute to their own success as well as the success of their family, community and the nation as a whole. The 5 Developmental Outcomes had as their aim the personal development of each learner as well as social and economic development at large. These critical and developmental outcomes provided the symbolic glue holding together the different versions and revisions of C2005 (Chisholm 2003). Each Learning Area had a number of Specific Outcomes, which referred to what learners should be able to do at the end of the learning experience at all levels. These outcomes included skills, knowledge and values. The Assessment Criteria provided evidence that learners had achieved the specific outcome. The assessment criteria were derived directly from the specific outcomes and indicated the observable processes and products of learning, which served as demonstration of the learners’ achievements. As the assessment criteria were only broad statements and did not provide enough details about exactly what and how much learning were acceptable for achieving the outcome, the Range Statements were formulated, which indicated the scope, depth, level of complexity and parameters of the achievement. Although the Range Statements indicated critical areas of content, processes and context which the learner should engage with in order to reach an acceptable level of achievement, they did not restrict learning to specific lists of knowledge items or activities that learners

could work through mechanically. The Performance Indicators provided the details of the content and processes that learners should master, as well as the details of the learning contexts in which the learners would be engaged. The learning programmes were the vehicles through which the curriculum was implemented in the schools. They were the sets of learning activities in which the learners would be involved while working towards the achievement of one or more specific outcomes (Department of Education 1997b).

As part of the LLC Learning Area learners had to enrol for their first language as well as for a second language. According to the National Department of Education, the language learning area could make a substantial contribution to nation building:

People interact with the world and each other through language. The more we are able to communicate, the better we are able to understand each other. Improved communication can only lead to a South Africa free of intolerance, misunderstandings and prejudice (Department of Education 1997b: 14).

In the LLC learning area the focus was on multilingualism. This outcome was in line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa 1996a), the South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa 1996c) and all other language policies and policy documents dealing with language. C2005 valued the importance of the development of the learners' language proficiency for academic success across the curriculum in the following words:

The outcomes in this learning area emphasise that language is not an end in itself. Language is a means to acting in the world in order to establish relationships, to engage with others in reciprocal exchange, to integrate new knowledge into existing knowledge, to obtain and convey ideas and information. Competence in the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) is crucial for academic mastery across the curriculum (Department of Education 1997b: 15).

The learning area Language, Literacy and Communication (Afrikaans) had seven specific outcomes that learners had to master, namely:

- Leerders skep en onderhandel betekenis en begrip.
- Leerders toon 'n kritiese bewustheid van taalgebruik.
- Leerders toon 'n waardering vir die estetiese, kulturele en sosiale waardes van taal.
- Leerders is in staat om inligting uit 'n verskeidenheid bronne en situasies in te win en te verwerk.
- Leerders verstaan en ken taalstrukture en taalkonvensies en kan hulle binne konteks toepas.

- Leerders gebruik taal vir leer.
- Leerders gebruik gepaste kommunikasie-strategieë vir spesifieke doeleindes en situasies (Department of Education 1997b).

These seven outcomes were the same for all language levels, e.g. home language and additional language as well as for all grades in the intermediate and senior phases. In order to realise these outcomes, listening, speaking, reading and writing skills had to be taught in an integrated way.

The task team responsible for the review of Curriculum 2005 admits that the implementation of the new curriculum might have been done too hastily as the new curriculum was rich in ideology, new terminology and radically different in design than the curricula of the past. Some of the major shortcomings of C2005 were that it was never researched or properly trialled; there was inadequate preparation and consideration of whether teachers, learners and the system in general were prepared for such a fundamental change; and too much emphasis was placed on the general at the cost of the specific (Department of Education 2000). Harley and Wedekind (2004) highlight the lack of thorough training of teachers as one of the main weaknesses in the implementation of the new curriculum. According to them, complex issues of pedagogy were neglected. Learner-centredness, outcomes instead of content, and group work soon became the major symbolic identifiers of the new curriculum.

By 2000 the major flaws in C2005 were becoming noticeable: learners struggled to read, write and count at the appropriate grade levels, learners had a lack of general knowledge, and there was a shift away from explicit teaching and learning to facilitation and group work. Hoadley and Jansen (2009: 171) hold the opinion that: "A good curriculum plan needs to be written in such a way that it makes sense to teachers and can provide guidance for teachers and learners by providing a path for learning." Due to a lack of specificity in the curriculum and too much new and difficult jargon, teachers did not know what and how to teach in order to deliver the new curriculum effectively. In an attempt to salvage the situation the Council of Education Ministers agreed at a meeting in June 2000 to the revision of the Statement of the National Curriculum for Grades R – 9 based on the recommendations of the Report of the Review Committee to streamline and strengthen C2005 (Department of Education 2002a). The subsequent review process began in 2001; this resulted in a Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement for Grades R – 9 (Schools), which was made available for public comment on 30 July 2001. The Revised National Curriculum Statement was completed in 2002, for implementation in January 2004.

3.3.4 Curriculum development in South Africa 2004 – 2011

In contrast to Curriculum 2005, which was labelled as a local, primarily skills-based and context-dependent curriculum, the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) of 2002 claimed to be a high knowledge, high skills curriculum, yet it remained committed to an outcomes-based approach to teaching. The criticism against Curriculum 2005 was that the focus was too strong on attitudes, dispositions and competencies, and too little emphasis was placed on the specification of essential learning. Another recommendation was that the curriculum design features be reduced from eight to three to make it easier for the teachers to negotiate their way through the curriculum. The RNCS now only had three curriculum design features, namely critical and developmental outcomes which framed the social or general aims of the curriculum; learning outcomes; and assessment standards (Department of Education 2002a). The aims of the new curriculum with regard to the learners were:

- To develop each learner's full potential as a citizen of a democratic South Africa;
- To create a lifelong learner who is confident and independent, literate, numerate and multi-skilled, compassionate, with a respect for the environment and the ability to participate in society as a critical and active citizen (Department of Education 2002a: 8).

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a:9) recognised the important role that teachers had to play in the transformation of education in the country and envisioned teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring, and who will be able to fulfil the various roles outlined in the Norms and Standards for Educators of 2000 (Department of Education 2000).

In the Intermediate Phase there are eight Learning Areas, namely Languages, Mathematics, Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Arts and Culture, Life Orientation, Economic and Management Sciences, and Technology. The Learning Area Statements for each Learning Area identifies the goals, expectations and outcomes to be achieved through related learning outcomes and assessment standards. The outcomes and assessment standards emphasise participatory, learner-centred and activity-based education and leave considerable room for creativity and innovation on the part of teachers in interpreting what and how to teach (Department of Education 2002a:10). A Learning Outcome is defined as:

A description of what (knowledge, skills and values) learners should know, demonstrate and be able to do at the end of the General Education and Training. A set of learning outcomes should ensure integration and progression in the development of concepts, skills and values through the assessment standards.

Learning outcomes do not prescribe content or method (Department of Education 2002a: 12).

An Assessment Standard is described as:

the level at which learners should demonstrate their achievement of the learning outcome(s) and the ways (depth and breadth) of demonstrating their achievement. They are grade specific and show how conceptual progression will occur in a Learning Area. They embody the skills and values required to achieve learning outcome. They do not prescribe method (Department of Education 2002a:12).

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a: 15) identifies Languages and Mathematics as distinct Learning Areas/Programmes and emphasises how important it is that the prescribed outcomes for each of these learning areas should be covered “effectively and comprehensively”. The time allocation for formal teaching in the Foundation, Intermediate and Senior Phase for each learning area/programme is prescribed in the overview of the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a). In the Foundation Phase 40% of the weekly teaching time should be spent on Literacy. This translates to about 9 hours per week in Grades 1 and 2 and 10 hours in Grade 3. In the Intermediate Phase 25% of the total weekly teaching time should be spent on teaching Languages, which comes to about 6½ hours per week (Department of Education 2002a: 17-18). Unfortunately there is no indication to the teacher how to divide these hours between the different languages. The teacher training programmes offered by the DoE in 2004 with the aim to inform and empower teachers to implement the new curriculum did not assist much in this regard, as only 3½ hours of the three-week training programme were dedicated to language issues. Hoadley and Jansen (2009: 171) hold the opinion that: “A good curriculum plan needs to be written in such a way that it makes sense to teachers and can provide guidance for teachers and learners by providing a path for learning”.

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) for the Languages learning area acknowledges the multilingual nature of South Africa and therefore stresses the importance that learners should develop a high level of proficiency in at least two languages and communicative competence in a third language:

- All learners will learn their home language and at least one additional official language;
- Learners will become proficient in an additional language while their home language is being used and developed;
- All learners will learn an African language for at least six years until the end of the

General Education and Training band, Grade 9. In some cases the African language can be acquired as a second additional language (Department of Education 2002b: 4).

In principle this curriculum supports an additive approach to multilingualism and the development of specifically African languages as is prescribed in the LiEP. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a) recommends that the learner's home language should be the LoLT, especially in the Foundation Phase, when learners learn to read and write for the first time.

The assessment standards set out in the Home Language (HL) curriculum document assume that the learner who starts school will be able to understand and speak the language. It has as its aim the development of the different aspects of literacy, namely reading, writing, visual and critical literacy. The curriculum of the home language is supposed to support the language of learning.

The First Additional Language (FAL) curriculum assumes that the learners do not necessarily have any knowledge of the language when they arrive at school. The curriculum has as its aim the development of the learners' ability to understand and speak the language. This forms the foundation of first additional language literacy. There is an expectation that the learners will be able to transfer the literacies they have acquired in their home language to the additional language. According to the RNCS, there is strong support for learners who will be expected to use their first additional language as LoLT at some stage in the GET band. The RNCS also states that the learner should be able to use his home and first additional language effectively and with confidence for different purposes, as well as for learning.

The second additional language (SAL) is for those learners who wish to learn three languages; the third language may be either an official language of South Africa or a foreign language. The assessment standards will ensure that the learners will be able to use the language for communicative purposes. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) specifies that less time will be allocated to the teaching of the second additional language than to the home language and the first additional language, yet there is no indication of how much time should be devoted to each of the different languages. The wording of the RNCS – “for those learners who want to learn three languages” (Department of Education 2002b: 5) – alludes to the fact that the second additional language is not compulsory. The fact that this third language may be any other language and not necessarily an African language defeats

the object of developing the previously disadvantaged indigenous languages. Although it might contribute to the promotion of multilingualism, it might not foster nation building.

Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 5) for Afrikaans First Additional Language seems to subscribe to the LiEP with regard to the language of teaching and learning (LoLT), it only provides advice and no form of obligation:

Daar word *aanbeveel* dat leerders se huistaal so ver moontlik vir die doel van leer en onderrig gebruik word. Dit is veral belangrik in die Grondslagfase wanneer kinders leer lees en skryf. *Indien* dit vir die leerders nodig is om vir leer en onderrig van hul huistaal na 'n addisionele taal oor te skakel, moet die oorskakeling noukeurig beplan word:

- Die addisionele taal *behoort* so vroeg moontlik as vak bekendgestel te word.
- Die huistaal *behoort so lank moontlik* saam met die addisionele taal gebruik te word.
- *Indien* 'n leerder by 'n skool inskryf waar die taal van onderrig en leer 'n addisionele taal vir die leerder is, *behoort onderwysers en die skool voorsiening te maak vir spesiale ondersteuning en addisionele leer* in die addisionele taal, totdat dit vir die leerder moontlik is om doeltreffend in die onderrigtaal te leer.

Nowhere in the document is reference made to how the first additional language should be approached, if it will not become a language of teaching and learning. The Languages documents do not make any clear distinction between the different levels and purposes of first additional languages.

In contrast to the seven Specific Outcomes for the LLC learning area of C2005, the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 6-7) Languages learning area has the same six Learning Outcomes for home languages as well as additional languages. The Learning Outcomes for Afrikaans First Additional Language are:

- Uitkoms 1: Luister: Die leerder is in staat om vir inligting en genot te luister en gepas en krities binne 'n wye verskeidenheid situasies te reageer.
- Uitkoms 2: Praat: Die leerder is in staat om vrymoedig en doeltreffend in gesproke taal binne 'n wye verskeidenheid situasies te kommunikeer.
- Uitkoms 3: Lees en Kyk: Die leerder is in staat om vir inligting en genot te lees en kyk en krities op die estetiese, kulturele en emosionele waardes in tekste te reageer.
- Uitkoms 4: Skryf: Die leerder is in staat om verskillende soorte feitelike en

verbeeldingstekste vir 'n wye verskeidenheid doeleindes te gebruik.

- Uitkoms 5: Dink en redeneer: Die leerder is in staat om taal vir dink en rededneer te gebruik en inliging vir leer te verkry, verwerk en gebruik.
- Uitkoms 6: Taalstruktuur en -gebruik: Die leerder ken en is in staat om die klanke, woordeskat en grammatika van die taal te gebruik om tekste te skep en te interpreteer.

The requirements for Afrikaans First Additional Language are exactly the same as for English First Additional Language and no guidance or clarification is provided regarding the nature of the “voorsiening ... vir spesiale ondersteuning en addisionele leer” (Department of Education 2002b:5). Except for Outcome 5, where there is some reference to using the skills of thinking and reasoning to access and use information for learning, no mention is made in the outcomes of the learner being able to use the additional language for learning. When we take into consideration the national trend to go for English as LoLT, as discussed in 3.2.4, it seems as if little thought has gone into the purpose of Afrikaans as First Additional Language and the Afrikaans document was the product of a mere translation exercise.

The focus of this study is the teaching of Afrikaans as first additional language (FAL) in Grades 4 – 6 in urban schools in the Western Cape. These grades constitute the Intermediate Phase of the General Education and Training (GET) band (Grades R – 6), which forms the compulsory component of the education system. The learners in the Intermediate Phase have already completed the Foundation Phase (Grades R – 3), where they have been introduced to Literacy, Numeracy and Life Skills as learning areas. The implementation of Grade R started gradually after 2002, yet many learners still enter Grade 1 without having attended Grade R. According to the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c), the Languages learning area in the Foundation Phase focuses on mother-tongue (MT) or home language teaching from Grades R to 3. In the case of learners who have to make the transition from their home language to an additional language as the language of learning and teaching, the RNCS (Department of Education 2002) advises that this should be carefully planned:

- The additional language should be introduced as a subject in Grade 1;
- The home language should continue to be used alongside the additional language for as long as possible;
- When learners enter a school where the language of learning and teaching is an additional language for the learner, teachers and other educators should make

provision for special assistance and supplementary learning of the additional language, until such time as the learner is able to learn effectively in the language of learning and teaching (Department of Education 2002c: 17).

In the section of the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c: 52) where the first additional language is discussed in detail, the teaching of the FAL is divided into three phases, namely: Starting out – Grade R and Grade 1; Making progress – Grade 2 and Consolidating progress – Grade 3. The Learning Outcomes 1 – 6 are generic for all first additional languages, and the only differentiation between a first additional language which will become the learner's LoLT and a first additional language which will remain the learner's FAL throughout is the reference to the number of words the learner will be expected to read and understand. In Grade 4 the learner is expected to demonstrate a reading vocabulary of between 1 000 and 2 500 common words and in Grade 5 between 2 000 and 3 500 (Department of Education 2002c: 68 – 69). The expectations differ for those learners who at some stage will be switching to their FAL as LoLT. In Grade 4 these learners should aim for 2 500 words and in Grade 5 they should aim for 3 500 words. In Grade 6 the expected number of words increases to between 3 000 and 5 000. Similar distinctions are made between the number of spoken words a learner will be able to understand in Grades 4 – 6 (Department of Education 2002b: 68-69, 82-83).

The Languages learning area is divided into three separate parts, namely Home Language (mother tongue), First Additional Language (second language) and Second Additional Language (third language), each with its own Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) document. The documents, including the Outcomes and Assessment Standards for Afrikaans First Additional Language and English First Additional Language, are exactly the same, as they are in the Foundation Phase. Even the expected number of words that should form part of the learner's reading vocabulary is exactly the same for Afrikaans FAL as for English FAL. If we consider the reality, as discussed in section 3.2.4, very few, if any, learners will switch from their home language (other than Afrikaans) to Afrikaans as LoLT in Grade 4. Therefore, the purpose of teaching Afrikaans as an additional language should be different from the purpose of teaching English as an additional language. This differentiation should be reflected in the outcomes, assessment standards and levels of competence learners are expected to achieve. Should a learner who intends to change to his second or even third language as LoLT in Grade 4 not be able to perform in that language at a much higher level of proficiency than the learner for whom the additional language will remain a language of communication only? Unfortunately the RNCS documents for First Additional

Languages do not make any distinction between the different levels of performance that are expected from the learners.

Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a) expects learners to be introduced to a first additional language from Grade 1 of the Foundation Phase, the LiEP (see 3.1.3) does not insist on learners passing both their home language and the language of learning and teaching or first additional language, as it is necessary to pass only one language until Grade 10. The implication of this pass requirement is that a learner may in fact fail the language of learning and teaching, in most cases the learner's first additional language, for six years, while he is expected to learn a number of subjects through the medium of that additional language (Burroughs 2011).

In response to problems encountered with the interpretation and implementation of the RNCS the then Minister of Education, Ms Naledi Pandor, in March 2008 introduced the Foundations for Learning (FFL), a four-year campaign (2008 – 2011) which had as its aim the creation of a national focus on improving learner performance in reading, writing and numeracy (Republic of South Africa 2008). This campaign was “a national response to national, regional and international studies that have shown over a number of years that South African children are not able to read, write and count at expected levels, and are unable to execute tasks that demonstrate key skills associated with Literacy and Numeracy” (Republic of South Africa 2008: 4). This campaign promised to provide schools and teachers with clear directives on the Department of Education's expectations of schools and teachers to achieve the expected level of performance. Although clear guidance is given to teachers regarding daily/weekly activities for literacy teaching of the home language in the Foundation Phase, the only reference to the first additional language is the following:

If learners are to use this [first additional] language as the LOLT further on, use the same methodologies (shared reading, word and sentence level work etc.) to introduce the new language and, after the first 6 months of Grade 1, literacy in the new language (Republic of South Africa 2008: 10-11).

Unfortunately there is no clarity in this document around the differences between home language instruction and the teaching of the FAL. There is a need for precise criteria and pedagogical steps which will assist teachers in implementing language teaching methodologies at the different levels effectively. Christie (2005) mentions how important it is to recognise that second language learners have special requirements and an attempt to transpose mother-tongue instruction as a model onto the teaching of a FAL is inadequate. The Foundations for Learning (FFL) for Grades 4 – 6 does not have separate documents for

home language and first additional language, although the time allocated to languages are divided between LOLT/HL and FAL/HL. Intermediate Phase teachers should devote 1½ hours per day to the teaching of languages: for 3 days a week the time should be spent on the HL and for 2 days per week the time should be spent on teaching the FAL. In total the Languages learning area should be awarded 7½ hours per week, which is 1 hour per week more than what is stipulated in the RNCS. In the FFL for home language comprehensive guidance is given to the teacher with regard to the principle of scaffolding and the different strategies of teaching reading. The information on the teaching of grammar, spelling and writing, however, lacks detail. The message that is sent out by having only one document for both home language and first additional language is that the methodologies of teaching these two levels of language are exactly the same, which is not the case. Teachers of Afrikaans and other African Languages are once again disadvantaged, as the FFL documents are available only in English.

The Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education 2009) on the weaknesses of the implementation of the RNCS states that most provinces introduce English as a subject only in Grade 3 and not in Grade 1, as suggested in the National Curriculum Statement Policy. This makes challenging the transition to Grade 4, where learners are faced with English (the learner's additional language) as LoLT, and three times as many learning areas. The situation for Afrikaans as first additional language is exactly the same: learners are for the first time exposed to their additional language in Grade 3, which makes it almost impossible for them to achieve the outcomes and assessment standards for the first additional language as set out in the RNCS for Grades 3 – 6. The recommendation of the task team to introduce English (read as LoLT or first additional language) from Grade 1 in 2012 is an attempt to make the transition from Grade 3 to Grade 4 less traumatic. In the case of an urban school in the Western Cape, where English is the home language or LoLT of most of the learners, Afrikaans will most probably be introduced as the first additional language in Grade 1. Burroughs (2011: 11) is of the opinion that, although this change in curriculum might prepare learners for the transition to learning through the medium of an additional language, it "further entrenches an early language transitional model and uncritically weakens the position of African languages in education even further."

One would have thought that the Department of Education had learned a lesson with the failed implementation of Curriculum 2005 and would endeavour to avoid the same mistakes with the implementation of the RNCS. Unfortunately this was not the case. According to the

report (Department of Education 2009) of the task team that reviewed the RNCS, the following shortcomings were identified.

- There was no clear and detailed implementation plan for the RNCS. The benefits, the national nature and importance of the RNCS were never emphasised. The RNCS was not introduced as a new curriculum. This led to teachers and district, provincial and national DoE officials to blend the two curricula and to develop their own interpretations and supporting documentation for the RNCS, which led to widespread confusion.
- Assessment support and guidance were not detailed enough and no assessment policy was developed by the specialists who had written the curriculum. Initially teachers were expected to continue to use the old assessment policy for Curriculum 2005. Over time incremental changes were made to the assessment policy, which led to further confusion with respect to assessment practices.
- Curriculum-supporting documents, such as Learning Programme Guidelines, were developed within the DoE by different people from those who had developed the Learning Area Statements, which led to contradictions across the different documents.
- Teacher training was not only superficial, and failed to clarify the points of departure and innovations of the RNCS, but it also did not address the cry for training in subject/learning area content.
- Finally, and most important for the purpose of this study, the language policy, as specified in the RNCS, was never communicated and never implemented. The language policy states that it is preferable for learners to learn in their home language in the Foundation Phase, but that they should get a solid foundation in the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) (in most cases English) as a subject from Grade 1. However, many schools across all provinces continued to start teaching English only in Grade 3, based on Curriculum 2005 provincial policies, leaving children unready for the change to LoLT in Grade 4. This gap between policy and practice has a major negative impact on the learners' ability to achieve the learning outcomes for the first additional languages, as set out in the RNCS (Department of Education 2009: 13).

3.3.5 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

After a thorough review of the RNCS, the review team came to the following conclusion:

...the current documents are not user friendly. Many are overly long and unwieldy, and at times verbose, and there is repetition across documents. Many of the documents also contain errors and contradictions. They are also unnecessarily complex, partly because a number of documents need to be read together in discerning what is to be taught and learnt, and how. In several instances, there is a lack of alignment between the curriculum statements, assessment tasks and subject assessment frameworks and guidelines (Department of Education 2009: 20).

The review team (Department of Education 2002a) suggested that the number of National Curriculum Statement documents should be reduced into a single set of coherent documents per subject or learning area per phase. The team also recommended that all discrepancies in, and repetition of, information in the documents must be resolved. The language in the new document should also be accessible to all teachers and therefore be simplified. The documents should focus on: specifying the content, concept and skill requirements for the particular learning area or subject; indicating the time allocation in order to set the pace at which the content should be taught; and clarifying the assessment requirements.

From 2012 the previous National Curriculum Statements for Grades R – 9 and Grades 10 – 12 have been replaced with a single document, the National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 12. This new document builds on the previous curriculum, but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specifications of what is to be taught and learned on a term-by-term basis (Department of Basic Education 2011). The new national Curriculum Statement Grades R – 12 is comprised of three documents:

- Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects;
- National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 12; and
- National Protocol for Assessment Grades R – 12.

The new national curriculum has moved away from learning areas in the Intermediate Phase and introduces six new subjects: Home Language; First Additional Language; Mathematics; Natural Sciences and Technology; Social Sciences; and Life Skills. Life Skills consists of the following elements: Creative Arts, Physical Education, and Personal and Social Wellbeing. It is a matter of concern, however, that the new curriculum does not allow any space or time for a second additional language. This might mean the end of the promotion of multilingualism in schools. According to CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011b:8), the home language is not necessarily the first language acquired by the learner, but it rather refers to the proficiency level at which the language is offered. The reason for this is that many schools do not offer the home language of many of the learners enrolled at the school. CAPS

(Department of Basic Education 2011b: 8) states that “the Home Language level provides for language proficiency that reflects the basic interpersonal communication skills required in social situations and the cognitive academic skills essential for learning across the curriculum.” The First Additional Language refers to “a language which is not the mother tongue of the learner, but which is used for certain communicative functions in a society, that is, medium of learning and teaching in education” (Department of Basic Education 2011b:8).

The curriculum claims to offer strong support for those learners who will use their first additional language as a LoLT, but no evidence could be found to support this claim. In the RNCS for FAL there was at least some indication that the learners who will be using their additional language as LoLT had to strive to be able to read and understand the top number of words in the range prescribed (Department of Education 2002b: 68-69; 82-83). The CAPS document (Department of Basic Education 2011a: 29-30) provides clear guidelines on the length of texts for reading and writing as well as the number of words FAL learners should be able to master in the different grades. There is, however, no distinction between the expectations for learners for whom the FAL is their LoLT and those learners who study the FAL as a subject only.

It is expected that learners will be able to use their home language and first additional language effectively and with confidence for a variety of purposes, including learning, by the end of Grade 9. As many learners do not have any knowledge of the first additional language when they arrive at schools, the focus in the first few years is on the development of the learners’ ability to understand and speak the language. As in the previous curricula, the assumption is that learners will be able to transfer the literacy skills that they acquired in their home language (Department of Education 2011a: 9). Heugh (2006), however, is of the opinion that when a learner is forced to change over to the additional language as LoLT before the home language is well established, there is no guarantee that the learner will be able to function at optimal cognitive and academic levels. The reality in South Africa is that most learners will start to use their first additional language as LoLT in Grade 4, at which stage they might not have acquired sufficient Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in that language in order to become competent academic communicators (Schlebusch & Thobedi 2004: 37).

Burroughs (2011: 11) notes that the general aims of the South African Curriculum are completely silent on the issue of language, except to note that “the National Curriculum Statement is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors.” It is, however, encouraging to see that the very

vague advice regarding time allocation in the RNCS for Grades R – 6 has now been replaced with more specific policy. Instructional time is allocated to both the home language and the first additional language from Grade 1 to Grade 12, as set out in Table 2.4 below. The total number of hours per week that has been allocated to language teaching in the Intermediate Phase is now 11 hours in comparison to the 6½ hours per week in the RNCS, and a clear distinction is made between the teaching time for home language and first additional language.

TABLE 3.4: Instructional time allocated per week to the home and additional languages in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

	Hours per week					
	Foundation Phase			Intermediate Phase	Senior Phase	FET
	Gr 1	Gr 2	Gr 3	Gr 4 - 6	Gr 7 - 9	Gr 10-12
Home Language	7/8	7/8	7/8	6	5	4.5
First Additional Language	2/3	2/3	3/4	5	4	4.5

(Source: Department of Basic Education 2011)

The frequent references to the transition from the learners' home language to English as LoLT in Grade 4, – for example, “many children start using their additional language, English, as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in Grade 4,” (Department of Basic Education 2011:8) and “In schools where children will use their additional language, English, as the LoLT from Grade 4” (Department of Basic Education 2011:9) – create the impression that the Department of Basic Education has unofficially adopted an “early-exit transitional bilingual” model, as referred to by Heugh (2008: 363), instead of an additive bilingual model.

The new curriculum has moved away from Learning Outcomes and the Afrikaans First Additional Language curriculum is now packaged according to the following language skills:

- Luister en Praat
- Lees en Kyk
- Skryf en Aanbied
- Taalstrukture en -konvensies

The CAPS documents (Department of Basic Education 2011a and 2011b) provide sufficient guidance and support to teachers with regard to language teaching methodology and suggest a text-based and communicative approach to the teaching of the first additional language. A text-based approach will enable the learners to become competent, confident and critical readers, writers and viewers of texts. This approach does not only involve listening to, reading, viewing and analysing texts to understand how they are produced, it also involves the production of different kinds of texts for specific purposes and audiences. A communicative approach implies that learners will have many opportunities to be exposed to the target language in order to produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. "Language learning should be a natural, informal process carried over into the classroom where the literacy skills of reading/viewing and writing/presenting are learned in a 'natural' way – learners read by doing a great deal of reading and learn to write by doing a range of writing" (Department of Basic Education 2011b: 13).

3.4 FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) states clearly that languages are central to our lives and that we communicate and understand our world through language. Language shapes our identity and knowledge. Vygotskian psycholinguistic theory regards language "as a means for engaging in social and cognitive activity" (Ushakova 1994: 158). In FAL communication teachers and learners should interact in a meaningful way. Van Schalkwyk (2001: 3) defines communication as a "two-way process in which feedback takes place when a certain medium is in use." Donato (1994: 34) describes the goal of communication as the "successful sending and receiving of linguistic tokens." Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004) regard the development of communicative competence as one of the main aims of using a language. According to them, communicative competence "is the ability to linguistically apply the language correctly in authentic situations" (Schlebusch & Tobedi 2004: 35). Van Ek (1976: 24-25) explains the outcome of a FAL programme as "the learners will be able to survive (linguistically speaking) in temporary contacts with foreign language speakers in everyday situations, whether as visitors to the foreign country or with visitors to their own country, and to establish and maintain social contacts." The purpose, therefore, of FAL teaching is the development of proficiency in the target language in order to use that language effectively and naturally in authentic situations, such as during formal and informal conversations. This process, however, is not a quick one and the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) reminds the teacher that language acquisition is a slow and gradual process.

Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) is not very clear about the methodology to be implemented in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, it stresses the integration of the learning outcomes: “Luister, praat, lees en kyk, skryf, dink en redeneer, en kennis van klanke, woorde en grammatika behoort, alhoewel dit as aparte leeruitkomste aangebied word, tydens onderrig en assessering geïntegreer te word” (Department of Education 2002b: 7). This approach of integration of the language skills in the classroom is in agreement with Nunan’s (1995: 3) observation that “even in lessons which are explicitly devoted to the development of one or other of the macro-skills, the other skills usually also feature prominently”. The CAPS (2011a: 14) mentions the approaches to teaching language as “text-based, communicative and process orientated.” Both the text-based approach and the communicative approach are dependent on the continuous use of texts, whereas the process approach refers to learners having to produce oral and written texts. Heugh *et al.* (1995) point out that teachers and learners in the FAL classroom are involved in the communicative process when using strategies such as direct instruction, discussion, group work, co-operative learning, problem solving, and learner research and performance activities effectively. According to Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997), the OBE approach promotes the effective use and integration of various teaching and learning strategies by the teacher, as well as the learners.

The main focus of this study is the teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional Language in Grade 4 – 6 classes in urban schools in the Western Cape, therefore the focus of the next section will be to review traditional approaches in FAL teaching as well as current practices of FAL teaching.

3.4.1 The distinction between approach and method

Language teaching came into its own as a profession in the last century and along with this the concept of a methodology of language teaching emerged. Language teaching can be defined as “*the activities which are intended to bring about language learning*” and therefore a theory of language teaching always implies concepts of language learning (Stern 1983: 21). Stern is adamant that a good language teaching theory will meet the conditions and needs of learners in the best possible way.

Theory is implicit in the practice of language teaching. It reveals itself in the assumptions underlying practice, in the planning of a course of study, in the routines of the classroom, in value judgements about language teaching, and in the decisions that the language teacher has to take . . . through classroom activities as

much as (or, indeed, better than) through the opinions he voices in discussions at professional meetings (Stern 1983: 23-24).

A theory should state and define its principal assumptions about language learning and teaching clearly in order to provide a solid foundation for the teaching practices which will be based on the specific theory. Rodgers (2001:1) defines the method concept in language teaching as “the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning.” He explains it as follows:

Theory statements would include theories of what language is and how language is learned or, more specifically, theories of second language acquisition (SLA). Such theories are linked to various design features of language instruction. These design features might include stated objectives, syllabus specifications, types of activities, roles of teachers, learners, materials, and so forth. Design features in turn are linked to actual teaching and learning practices as observed in the environments where language teaching and learning take place. This whole complex of elements defines language teaching methodology (Rodgers 2001:3).

The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* defines methodology as follows:

(1) . . . the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, and the principles and beliefs that underlie them. Methodology includes: (a) study of the nature of LANGUAGE SKILLS (e.g. reading, writing, speaking, listening) and procedures for teaching them; (b) study of the preparation of LESSON PLANS, materials, and textbooks for teaching language skills; (c) the evaluation and comparison of language teaching METHODS (e.g. the AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD)
(2) such practices, procedures, principles, and beliefs themselves. One can, for example criticize or praise the methodology of a particular language course (Richards *et al.* 1985:177).

Nunan (1995) considers methodology from the perspective of the classroom, where the major focus is on classroom tasks and activities and the management of learning. This interpretation is supported by Richards (1990:11), who describes methodology as follows: “Methodology can be characterised as the activities, tasks, and learning experiences selected by the teacher in order to achieve learning, and how they are used within the teaching/learning process”.

According to Richards (1998), however, there has been a tendency historically to equate methodology with method. Kumaravadivelu (2006: 84) is of the opinion that “established methods [are] conceptualised and constructed by experts in the field”, and methodology is “what practicing teachers actually do in the classroom in order to achieve their stated or unstated teaching objectives.” Rodgers (2001) holds the opinion that within methodology a distinction is often made between methods and approaches. Methods are describes as “fixed teaching systems with prescribed techniques and practices, whereas approaches

represent language teaching philosophies that can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom” (Rodgers 2001: 2). Methods can therefore be seen as highly prescribed entities and approaches as loosely described entities. Anthony (1963) identified three levels of conceptualisation and organisation, namely approach, method and technique. The organisational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach. He defines these three concepts as follows:

An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, an all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods...A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well (Anthony 1963: 63).

According to Anthony’s model, approach is the conceptual level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are described. The term ‘approach’ refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning; for the purpose of this study the term ‘approach’ will refer to the underlying assumptions, beliefs and theories of FAL and FAL learning. Method is viewed as the expression of beliefs about language learning (Weideman 2002) and refers to the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the skills and content to be taught as well as in which particular order this should be done; technique is the level at which classroom practice is described (Richards and Rodgers 1986). Nunan (1995) holds the view that all methods have one thing in common and that is:

they all assume that there is a single set of principles which will determine whether or not learning will take place. Thus they all propose a single set of precepts for teacher and learner classroom behaviour, and assert that if these principles are faithfully followed, they will result in learning for all (Nunan 1995 : 3).

Unfortunately this is not always the case, as a study by Swaffar *et al.* (1982) found that, although teachers who took part in their study were specifically trained in a particular method, their actual classroom practice was characterised by a range of activities and tasks which transcended the method in question. One can therefore not assume that what teachers are taught to do is reflected in what goes on in the classroom. Thornbury (2011) agrees with this point when he explains that teachers’ choices of activities, tasks and learning experiences are influenced by their own theories of language and of learning, as well as their assessment of the needs, learning styles and abilities of their learners.

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 16-17) have identified three different theoretical views of language and the nature of language proficiency that explicitly or implicitly inform approaches and methods in language teaching. The first is the “structural view”, which refers to language as a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The objective of language learning is the mastery of elements of the particular language, e.g. phonological units, grammatical units, grammatical operations and lexical items. Methods that subscribe to this particular view are the audio-lingual method, total physical response, and the silent way.

The second view of language is the “functional view”, which refers to language as a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching and the language for specific purposes embody this view of language. The emphasis of this theory is the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical aspects of language, and it results in the specification and organisation of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than elements of structure and grammar.

The third view of language is called the “interactional view”. It sees language “as a vehicle for the realisation of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations”. (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 17). The interactional theories focus on the patterns of negotiation, acts and interactions found in conversational exchanges and, according to this view, the teaching of language content may be organised by patterns of exchange and interactions.

Thornbury (2011) describes the history of language teaching methodology in the following words:

The history of methodology is typically construed as both evolutionary and revolutionary: a process of gradual development and improvement, marked by occasional radical upheavals as existing orthodoxies are discredited and supplanted (Thornbury 2011: 186).

For the purpose of this study, the term ‘approach’ will refer to the underlying assumptions, beliefs and theories of second language teaching and learning. The term ‘method’ is viewed as the expression of beliefs about language learning. The concept ‘techniques’ refers to a wide variety of language procedures in the form of tasks, exercises, activities, or devices used in the language classroom to achieve the lesson and learning outcomes.

In the following sections the audio-lingual method, as an example of traditional approaches and methods will be reviewed, after which communicative language teaching (CLT) and other more recent developments in FAL teaching will be discussed.

3.4.2 The audio-lingual method

Charles Fries was the first linguist who used the term ‘applied linguistics’ in terms of language teaching methodology. The linguistics that he applied was structuralist and provided the ingredient that had been missing from earlier direct method courses: a systematic description of sentence structures or patterns (Richards & Rodgers 1986; Thornbury 2011). The term audio-lingualism was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), Weideman (2002) and Thornbury (2011), the audio-lingual method is linked to the psychology of learning and the learning theory of behaviourism within the school of stimulus-response theory. This kind of behaviourism views language as a habit, and language learning is therefore equated with the learning of a set of habits. Vygotsky, on the other hand, proposed that the key to internalisation resides in the uniquely human capacity to imitate the intentional activity of other humans. Imitation, however, is not understood as the mindless mimicking often associated with behaviourism in psychology and the audio-lingual method in language pedagogy (Lantolf & Thorne 2006). Crucial elements in learning are: a stimulus, which elicits behaviour; a response triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate or inappropriate, and encourages the repetition or suppression of the response in the future (Richards & Rodgers 1986; Brown 1980; Weideman 2002).

The audio-lingual method of language teaching is characterised by the fact that grammar, or structure, is the starting point, specifically structural units at and below the level of the sentence. Systematic attention is given to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns. Hockett (1959 in Richards & Rodgers 1986: 46) describes it as follows: “It is these basic patterns that constitute the learner’s task. They require drill, drill, and more drill, and only enough vocabulary to make such drills possible.” Language learning is seen as the mastery of the structures or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, and mastery can be achieved only by means of numerous repetitions of the same patterns.

An important belief of structural linguistics is that the primary medium of language is oral: speech is language. Brooks (in Rivers 1964: 35) argues that language is “primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written.” Therefore, speech had priority in language

teaching. American linguist William Moulton proclaimed the linguistic principles on which language teaching methodology should be based: "Language is speech, not writing ... A language is a set of habits ... Teach the language, not about the language ... A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say ... Languages are different" (quoted in Rivers 1964:5). Since speech was held to be primary and writing secondary, it was assumed that language teaching should focus on mastery of speech and that writing or even written prompts should be withheld until reasonably late in the language learning process.) describes the short-term objectives of language teaching within the audio-lingual method as:

first, control of the structures of sound, form, and order in the new language; second, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content into these structures; and third, meaning, in terms of the significance these verbal symbols have for those who speak the language natively (Brooks in Rivers 1964: 111).

Brooks (in Rivers 1964:113) sees the long-term objective of language teaching as the ability to speak the target language as the native speaker uses it.

Weideman (2002:21) and Rivers (1964: 19-22) describe the now familiar principles of the audio-lingual method as follows:

- Speaking comes before writing: we learn language in a particular order, namely that of listening first, then speaking, reading and writing. Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills;
- 'Basic' sentences must precede more complex ones (because we learn by analogy rather than by analysis);
- Language patterns must become language habits;
- Analogy provides a better foundation for language learning than analysis. Analogy involves the processes of generalisation and discrimination. Explanations of rules are therefore not given until students have practised a pattern in a variety of contexts and are thought to have acquired a perception of the analogies involved. Drills can enable learners to form correct analogies. Hence the approach to the teaching of grammar is essentially inductive rather than deductive.
- Vocabulary must be restricted (because the sounds and the structures of a language constitute the primary lingual material);
- Teachers must concentrate their efforts on the problems, i.e. on the structural differences between units and patterns in the first and second language;
- The language content of the course must be graded strictly according to grammatical

criteria, i.e. a grammatically simpler phenomena, such as the singular form of a noun, must be learned before a structurally more complex forms, such as the plural;

- Let the learner speak the language (instead of translating);
- An incomplete or erroneous response is unacceptable as end product, and must immediately be corrected (lest it becomes a habit). Mistakes can be minimised by memorising dialogues and performing pattern drills;
- The meanings that the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context and not in isolation. Teaching a language thus involves teaching aspects of the cultural system of the people who speak the language.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:47) are of the opinion that behaviourism views learners as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses and teaching should focus on the external manifestations of learning rather than on the internal processes. Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli and they have little control over the content, pace or style of learning. Learners are not encouraged to initiate interaction, because this might lead to mistakes and mistakes are difficult to eradicate. Even though learners might not always understand what they are repeating, it is believed that if they listen to the teacher, imitate what they have heard accurately, and respond to and perform controlled tasks, they will learn a new form of verbal behaviour.

The audio-lingual method is a teacher-centred method of teaching. The teacher dominates all activities in the classroom. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' efforts. It is assumed that language learning is the result of active verbal interaction between the teacher and the learners, and that failure to learn is the result of the incorrect application of the method. Teaching materials used in the audio-lingual method is teacher oriented. Printed material should not be provided to learners in the early stages of learning as it may distract attention from the aural input. Tape recorders and audio-visual equipment are often used. In the case of the teacher not being a native speaker of the target language, the tape recorder (or now the CD) can provide accurate models for dialogues and drills. At the height of the audio-lingual era language laboratories were considered essential in providing opportunities for further drill work (Richards & Rodgers 1986).

Unfortunately the audio-lingual method did not satisfy the expectations either of theorists or of practitioners. It was found that the theoretical foundations of audio-lingualism were

unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory. Noam Chomsky was one of the prominent linguists who rejected the structuralist approach to language teaching as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning:

Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy (Chomsky 1966:153).

Therefore sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition, but are generated from the learner's underlying competence. On the other hand, the practitioners found that the practical results did not show the expected outcomes. Learners were often unable to transfer the skills acquired through audio-lingualism to real communicative situations outside the classroom and many learners found studying through audio-lingual procedures to be boring.

Despite the fact that the audio-lingual method does not comply with the expectations of the RNCS or the CAPS for First Additional Language teaching, many teachers still use this method in their language classrooms. Some of the reasons might be that it is teacher-centred and puts the teacher in a position of authority in the classroom; it is a structured method with clear guidelines as to what steps should be followed in order to teach the grammar structures; there is some evidence of progression as the teacher moves from teaching simple structures to more complicated ones; the teacher experiences a feeling of achievement as she can tick off on the list of what structures or patterns have been taught, and when learners manage to imitate and repeat sentences without any mistakes, the teacher may assume that the teaching and learning process has been successful.

3.4.3 Communicative language teaching (CLT)

The communicative approach to language teaching came about as a result of the shift away from the concern for what language is to a concern for what language does and how it operates in the world (Thornbury 2011). The main thrust behind the communicative approach was Hymes's (1972) notion of "*communicative competence*", which he described as the knowledge of "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (1972: 277). Nunan (1987) suggests that genuine communication

is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs (Nunan 1987: 137).

Widdowson (1990) and Canale and Swain (1980: 28-31) identify four dimensions of communicative competence: grammatical or linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to what Chomsky (1966) calls linguistic competence and reflects the learner's ability to know and apply the grammatical structures and rules of the language correctly. Sociolinguistic competence refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place and is demonstrated by the learner's ability to use the correct register during communicative interaction. Canale and Swain (1980) describe discourse competence as the knowledge of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in various genres and situations. Scarcella *et al.* (1990: 103), on the other hand, uses the term discourse competence to refer to "verbal, nonverbal, and paralinguistic knowledge underlying the ability to organise spoken and written texts meaningfully and appropriately". Strategic competence refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate and redirect communication. It also refers to the non-linguistic strategies communicators use in order to get the message across when they do not have the necessary vocabulary, e.g. facial expressions, gestures or descriptions. Littlewood (1981) and Howatt (1984) distinguish between a strong and a weak interpretation of CLT. The strong version goes beyond giving learners opportunities to practise communication. The strong version asserts that language is acquired through communication, while a weak interpretation acknowledges the need for a focus on form and structure. In his support for a weak interpretation, Littlewood argues that the following skills need to be taken into consideration.

- The learner must attain as high a degree of linguistic competence as possible. That is, he must develop skill in manipulating the linguistic system to the point where he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express his intended message.
- The learner must distinguish between the forms he has mastered as part of his linguistic competence, and the communicative functions which they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of a linguistic system must also be understood as part of a communicative system.
- The learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meaning as effectively as possible in concrete situations. He must learn to use feedback to judge his success, and, if necessary, remedy failure by using different language.
- The learner must become aware of the social meaning of language forms. For many

learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones (Littlewood 1981: 6).

Widdowson (1990) describes the move away from the structural means of teaching to the communicative ends of learning a language as follows:

The communicative approach reverses the emphasis on the structural. It concentrates on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds. The content of a language course is now defined not in terms of forms, words and sentence patterns, but in terms of the concepts, or notions, which such forms are used to express, and the communicative functions which they are used to perform (Widdowson 1990: 159).

Widdowson's interpretation supports Wilkins's (1972) attempt to describe the systems of meanings that lie behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meanings, namely semantic notional categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative function (requests, denials, offers, complaints). These new interactive views of language teaching collectively came to be known as communicative language teaching (CLT).

Canale and Swain (1980) are of the opinion that the theories of basic communication skills seem to be designed with general additional language programmes in mind. "The theory of basic communication skills can be characterised as one that emphasises the minimum level of (mainly oral) communication skills needed to get along in, or cope with, the most common second language situations the learner is likely to face" (Canale and Swain 1980: 9). Savignon (in Canale & Swain 1980) is mainly concerned with the skills that learners of an additional language need to get their message across and to do things in the target language. Van Ek's (1976) interpretation of the general objectives for general additional language programmes, as referred to earlier, supports the above views. Some researchers are, however, concerned about the lack of emphasis on other aspects of communicative competence, such as knowledge of the appropriateness of utterances with respect to the sociocultural context (sociolinguistic competence), or grammatical accuracy (linguistic competence) (e.g. Canale & Swain 1980; Savignon 1972; Palmer 1978).

According to Cummins (1984) and Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004), effective communication depends on basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS provide learners with the skills to speak and cope with pronunciation and vocabulary in order to be able to use the target language in everyday

situations. CALP, on the other hand, enables the learners to become competent academic communicators. The learners will be equipped to engage in cognitively demanding and problem-solving tasks by using the target language. In the South African context, where most learners will be using their first additional language as LoLT from Grade 4, it would be ideal if they could attain a CALP level of English proficiency in order to be academically successful. Language competence at the BICS level does not equip learners to perform cognitive operations with adequate proficiency. Cummins (1984) divides the cognitive aspects in terms of Bloom's taxonomy. BICS-level competency will include conversational proficiency, knowledge, comprehension and application, whereas CALP-level competency will allow the learners to operate at the deeper levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Larsen-Freeman (2011) refers to the communicative/functional approach to teaching the additional language, which will lead to the acquisition of procedural knowledge and will prepare the learners to do things with the language, especially when they want to use the language for their own purposes outside the classroom. On the other hand, she refers to the formal/structural approach. The formal/structural approach provides the learners with a great deal of expository knowledge about the language, such as lexical items and structures.

Communicative language teaching is regarded as an approach and not a method, as CLT advocates avoided prescribing the set of practices through which the outcomes could best be realised. Brown (2001:42) supports the view that CLT should be considered an approach, because of "the numerous possible ways of defining CLT and a plethora of interpretations and classroom applications." Richards and Rodgers (1986:66) agree that "there is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative." Thornbury (2011:189) states the reason that CLT should be considered as an approach rather than a method is "the fact that the communicative approach had been fuelled by developments at the level of language description, but there had been no concomitant developments in learning theory ... and hence no real stimulus to rethink methodology." He is of the opinion that there was an underlying assumption that using language in meaningful and communicative ways would better prepare learners for authentic language use outside the classroom. Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that the communicative approach in language teaching started from a theory of language as communication because the goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. Van Lier (2003) and Lantolf (2000) argue that constructivist and sociocultural learning theories, aligned with the work of Bruner and Vygotsky, have provided a socially grounded rationale for the use of interactive and collaborative pair and group work tasks, in which learning is jointly constructed, and progresses through stages of 'other regulation' to 'self-regulation'.

Richards and Rodgers (1986:66) describe the aims of CLT as two-fold: “to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication”. Others see it as little more than an integration of grammatical and functional teaching, or the implementation of procedures where learners work in pairs or groups using available language resources in problem-solving tasks (Richards & Rodgers 1986). Littlewood (1981:1) is much more specific in his description of CLT: “One of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.” Weideman (2002:29) is of the opinion that the success of any second language teaching should be judged in terms of “how it measures up to the objective of teaching ‘communication’, and enabling learners to become communicatively competent in the target language”.

Brown (2001), Weideman (2002), and Richards and Rodgers (1986) hold the view that CLT is a recognised approach to language teaching that is widely accepted in the field. The reason for this is that there are numerous possible ways of defining CLT and a vast number of interpretations and classroom applications with which practitioners can identify. Brown (2001) lists the following six interconnected characteristics as a description of CLT.

- Classroom goals are focused on all of the components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic and strategic) of communicative competence. Goals therefore must intertwine the organisational aspects of language with the pragmatic.
- Language techniques are designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, authentic, functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Organisational language forms are not the central focus, but rather aspect of language that enable the learner to accomplish these purposes.
- Fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. At times fluency may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.
- Students in a communicative class ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts outside the classroom. Classroom tasks must therefore equip students with the skills necessary for communication in those contexts.
- Students are given opportunities to focus on their own learning process through an understanding of their own styles of learning and through the development of appropriate strategies for autonomous learning.

- The role of the teacher is that of facilitator and guide, not an all-knowing bestower of knowledge. Students are therefore encouraged to construct meaning through genuine linguistic interaction with others (Brown 2001: 43).

As CLT emerged as a reaction against the strong focus on form and structure in the traditional methods, the approach suggests that grammatical structures should rather be subsumed under various functional categories and that less attention should be given to explicit teaching of grammatical rules. In order to build fluency, much emphasis is placed on the use of authentic language. Brown (2001) warns, however, that fluency should never be encouraged at the expense of clear, unambiguous communication. Learners should be encouraged to develop a strategic approach to acquisition and the teacher's role has now become a facilitative role in the learner-centred language classroom. Some of the characteristics and expectations of CLT make it difficult for a non-native speaking teacher, who is not very proficient in the target language, to teach effectively. These difficulties and expectations of FAL teachers' language proficiency will be discussed in section 3.6.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 91-93) compiled one of the most comprehensive lists of CLT features in a comparison of audio-lingual methodology with what they called the communicative approach.

TABLE 3.5: A comparison of the audio-lingual method and communicative language teaching

Audio-lingual Method	Communicative Language Teaching
1. Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
2. Demands more memorisation of structure-based dialogues.	Dialogues, if used, revolve around communicative functions and are not normally memorised.
3. Language items are not necessarily contextualised.	Contextualisation is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Mastery or "overlearning" is sought.	Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling is a central technique.	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Grammatical explanation is avoided.	Any device that helps the learners is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Communicative activities occur after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.	Attempts to communicate are encouraged from the very beginning.
10. The use of the student's native language is forbidden.	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation is forbidden at early levels.	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing are deferred until speech is	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if

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mastered.	desired.
13. The target linguistic system is learned through the explicit teaching of the patterns of the system.	The target linguistic system is learned through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Linguistic competence is the desired goal.	Communicative competence is the desired goal.
15. Varieties of language are recognised but not emphasised.	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methods.
16. The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content function or meaning that maintains interest.
17. The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflict with the theory.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. "Language is habit," so error must be prevented at all costs.	Language is often created by the individual through trial and error.
19. Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.	Fluency and acceptable language are the primary goals; accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.	Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writing.
21. The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.	The teacher cannot know exactly what the students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(Source: Finocchiaro & Brumfit 1983:91-93)

Brown (2001) highlights a number of concepts that have become synonymous with CLT, but may still be regarded as overlapping and confusing, e.g. learner-centred instruction, cooperative and collaborative learning, interactive learning, whole language education, and content-based instruction.

3.4.4 The natural approach

The natural approach to second and foreign language teaching was introduced by Krashen and Terrell in their book, *The Natural Approach* (1983). They view language as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages, and therefore "acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language" (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 19). The emphasis for language acquisition is thus on exposure or input rather than on practice, optimising emotional preparedness for learning, a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language, and willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input (Richards & Rodgers 1986). The natural approach differs from the direct method, as less emphasis is placed on "teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and [there is] less focus on accurate production of target language sentences" (Richards & Rodgers 1986:129).

The natural approach derives from the school that believes that first language acquisition is the only universally successful model of language learning we have, and therefore second language pedagogy must model itself on first language acquisition (Rodgers 2001). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) locate the natural approach within the comprehension approach where the focus is on listening comprehension through meaningful exposure (comprehensible input) to the target language. Meaning is given priority over form in developing basic communication skills. It is believed that if the teacher uses language that is just beyond of the students' current level of proficiency ($i+1$), while making sure that her input is comprehensible, acquisition will proceed 'naturally'.

The natural approach is based on the following four principles:

- Comprehension precedes production. As stated earlier, comprehension is necessary to acquire language through listening or reading before the learner will be able to produce spoken or written language;
- Production emerges in stages. Speech and writing develop in stages from non-verbal communication to single word responses to eventually more complex full sentences;
- The syllabus consists of communicative goals. The focus and outcome of each classroom activity in the beginning comprehension and production stages are to communicate effectively. Grammatical accuracy is not emphasised and no error-correction occurs during acquisition activities;
- Activities in the classroom are aimed at lowering the affective filter. The teacher must attempt at lowering the anxiety level by creating a relaxed and learner-friendly atmosphere which will enhance acquisition. (Krashen & Terrel 1985: 20-21)

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), the theory and research of the natural approach is grounded in Krashen's language acquisition theory. The five principal tenets of Krashen's theory will now be discussed briefly.

3.4.4.1 The acquisition/learning hypothesis

The acquisition/learning hypothesis claims that there are two distinctive ways of developing competence in a second or foreign language. The first way is language acquisition, the natural way, which is similar to the way in which children develop proficiency in their first language. Language acquisition is a subconscious process; language acquirers are not

usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring language. Language proficiency is developed through understanding language and through using language for meaningful communication. Acquired language leads to fluency and a 'feel' for correctness, without knowing the rules explicitly (Richards & Rodgers 1986; Krashen 1982; Krashen & Terrell 1983).

The second way to develop competence in a second or foreign language is by language learning. In contrast to acquisition, learning is the conscious learning of rules and structures. "Learning results in knowing the rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them" (Krashen 1982: 10). Conscious learning goes hand in hand with formal teaching and correction of errors helps with the development of learned rules. "Error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning. Error correction supposedly helps the learner to induce or 'figure out' the right form of a rule" (Krashen 1982: 11). According to Krashen's theory learning does not lead to acquisition, but does contribute to accuracy of produced language.

3.4.4.2 *The monitor hypothesis*

This hypothesis states that conscious learning plays a limited role in second language performance and can function only as a monitor or editor that checks and repairs the output of the acquired system (Richards & Rodgers 1986). The speaker will call on learned knowledge to correct himself when communicating. There are three prerequisites for the successful use of the monitor:

- Time. The language user must have enough time to think about and apply conscious rules effectively;
- Focus on form. The language user must be focused on correctness or thinking about the correct form of the output;
- Knowledge of rules. The language user must know the rules. For the monitor to perform optimally, rules should be simple to describe and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements (Krashen & Terrell 1983:16; Richards & Rodgers 1986: 132).

Krashen identifies three different types of monitor users:

- Monitor over-users. These language users attempt to monitor all the time. They are

constantly checking their output with their conscious knowledge of the target language. As a result these language users speak hesitantly and are so concerned with accuracy that they cannot speak with any real fluency;

- Monitor under-users. These language users have not learned – or if they have learned, they prefer not to use – conscious knowledge. They will only self-correct by relying on a ‘feel’ for correctness and rely completely on the acquired system. For these language users getting the message across is much more important than the correct form;
- The optimal monitor users. The ultimate goal of second language teaching is to produce optimal users, language users who use the monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication (Krashen 1982: 19).

3.4.4.3 *The natural order hypothesis*

This hypothesis states that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order. Acquirers of a given language tend to acquire certain grammatical structures early, and others later, yet, “the natural order hypothesis does not state that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in the exact same order. It states, rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and others tend to be acquired later” (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 28). Krashen emphasises, however, that the order of acquisition for the second language is not the same as the order of acquisition for the first language, but there are some similarities. Errors are signs of “naturalistic developmental processes, and during acquisition (but not during learning), similar developmental errors occur in learners no matter what their mother tongue is” (Richards & Rodgers 1986:132).

3.4.4.4 *The input hypothesis*

The input hypothesis claims that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance in the language programme, and that the ability to speak (or write) fluently in a second language will come on its own with time. Speaking fluency is thus not taught directly; rather, the speaking ability emerges after the acquirer has built up competence through comprehending input (Krashen & Tyrrell 1983). This hypothesis claims that people acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond their current level of competence. There are four main parts of the input hypothesis:

- First, the input hypothesis relates to acquisition, and not learning;

- Second, people acquire language by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond their current level of competence ($i + 1$). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information. “An acquirer can ‘move’ from a stage i (where i is the acquirer’s level of competence) to a stage $i + 1$ (where $i + 1$ is the stage immediately following i along some natural order) by understanding language contained in i ” (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 32).
- Third, the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it emerges in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding input. This means that people acquire language by going for meaning first, and as a result, they acquire structure.
- Fourth, if there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, $i + 1$ will usually be provided automatically. Comprehensible input refers to utterances or texts that the learner understands based on the context in which they are used as well as the language in which they are phrased (Richards & Rodgers 1986:132-133; Krashen 1982: 21-22).

In the second language classroom the teacher must be able to distinguish between finely-tuned input and roughly-tuned input. Finely-tuned input will only benefit the child whose $i + 1$ is exactly the same as what is emphasised in the input, whereas roughly-tuned input will provide $i + 1$ for more than one child at a time, as long as they understand what is said (Krashen 1982: 23-24). Lightbown and Spada (1999: 150) have come to the conclusion that “learners continue to have difficulty with basic structures of the language in programs which offer no form-focused instruction.” In their study of research projects done on different language teaching methods, they could not find support for the argument that if second language learners are simply exposed to comprehensible input, language acquisition will take care of itself.

Krashen’s input hypothesis, notably the $i + 1$ or comprehensible input, has from time to time been equated with Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development. Van Lier (2004), however, disagrees with this equation, as he believes that there are deep and fundamental differences between the processes and dynamics of the two perspectives. Dunn and Lantolf (1998) examined these differences and concluded that the two perspectives are ‘incommensurable’.

TABLE 3.6: The ZPD and $i + 1$ compared

Categories of comparison	$i + 1$	ZPD
Unit of analysis	Comprehensible input at $i + 1$, linguistic structures	Action, activity
Learning outcome or objective	The 'next' linguistic structure or item	More complex activity, higher mental functions, self-regulation
Process	Subconscious processing	Internalisation/appropriation and transformation
Guiding metaphor	Hard-wired computer, processor	Active organism in ecosystem
Model of language	Information processing, transmission of information	Co-constructing meaning, dialogical
Teacher	Provide input and keep filter low	Guide students' activity, scaffold, support access

(Source: Van Lier 2004:155)

One can see at a glance that the middle column, that of $i + 1$, relates to the input-output, or information-processing or acquisition perspective, while the right-hand column, the ZPD, corresponds to a sociocultural, or language socialisation, or participation perspective.

In terms of the unit of analysis, the input theory looks at predetermined elements of language or structures that are part of a fixed code. In the ZPD, on the other hand, the unit of analysis is action or (collaborative) activity. In $i + 1$ the learning outcome is the acquisition or mastery of the next linguistic structure, but in the ZPD perspective the intended outcomes are the development of more complex activities or higher mental functions, and an increased level of self-regulation (van Lier 2004).

The process of acquisition in the $i + 1$ perspective is subconscious; the process also assumes a linear causality between input and acquisition. In the ZPD, on the other hand, the development of consciousness is part and parcel of the process of internalisation. In the $i + 1$ condition the learner might be a passive 'loner', or at best an attentive 'receiver' of the input. The ZPD, on the other hand, is created and driven by the activity of the learner, supported and guided by the more knowledgeable peer or teacher.

The $i + 1$ approach assumes a learner as processor, a computer that is hard-wired to receive specific kinds of input. The learner in the ZPD is regarded as an active organism in an ecosystem, in a social-cultural-historical life space; $i + 1$ assumes a transmission view of

education, the ZPD a transformation view. The former adheres to the fixed code of an essentially monological language, the latter assumes an emergent, co-constructed dialogical language. As a result, the teacher in an $i + 1$ context is a provider of input, while ensuring a positive affective atmosphere, so that the input is not filtered out before it enters the learner's brain. The teacher in the ZPD context knows that teaching is assisted use, i.e. learner-initiated activity that is guided, supported and stimulated through the processes of scaffolding and prolepsis (van Lier 2004: 154 – 157).

Van Lier (2004) warns against the “zone of proximal development” becoming a catch-all phrase for any instructional activity by a teacher, no matter how passive the learner and mechanical the activity. Rogoff (1990) has a view of the classroom transforming from rows and rows of learners oriented towards an elevated talking head at the front of the class, waiting to receive the comprehensible input, to work stations, group tables, discussion corners, individual quiet places, and common presentation areas where dialogical co-construction of meaning takes place.

Just like young children acquire language through exposure to caretaker speech (the simplified language that mothers, fathers and others use when speaking to them), second language learners acquire the target language through simplified input. This caretaker-like speech comes in different forms or codes: foreigner talk, teacher talk and inter-language talk. Foreigner talk refers to the modifications native speakers make when talking to non-native speakers. These modifications include: slowing down, repeating and rephrasing. Teacher talk is foreigner talk in the second language classroom. It is not meant for language teaching, but refers to the language the teacher uses for classroom management and explanations, when it is in the target language. Teacher talk is also roughly-tuned, as she addresses the whole class and not an individual learner. Inter-language talk is the speech of other second language acquirers. This code is meant for real communication, but some researchers still doubt whether the possible advantages of inter-language talk balance the obvious problems, namely the ungrammaticality of much of the input, and the possibility that the input might be too simple and not progressive enough for the intermediate or advanced acquirer (Krashen & Terrell 1983; Krashen 1985; Richards & Rodgers 1986).

Schmidt (1990), however, refutes the input theory and claims “that subliminal language learning is impossible, and that [what might be learned] is what learners consciously notice. This requirement of noticing is meant to apply equally to all aspects of language (lexicon, phonology, grammatical form, pragmatics)” (Schmidt 1990: 149). These claims are supported by findings indicating benefits of interaction with the target language rather than exposure to

input alone (Long 1996). These views are in line with the views in sociocultural theory that language development is part of what can occur through learners' "participation in culturally organised practices, life-long involvement in a variety of institutions, and humans' ubiquitous use of tools" (Lantolf & Thorne 2006: 1). Tools can refer to both language and technology.

3.4.4.5 *The affective filter hypothesis*

The affective filter hypothesis states how affective factors, such as attitudes and emotions, relate to the second language acquisition process. The concept of the affective filter was proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977). Krashen views the learner's emotional state as an "adjustable filter that freely passes, impedes, or blocks input necessary to acquisition" (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 133). Lightbown and Spada (1999: 39) describe the affective filter as an "imaginary barrier which prevents learners from using input which is available in the environment". A learner who is tense, angry, anxious, or bored, may filter out input, making it unavailable for acquisition. The operation of the affective filter is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

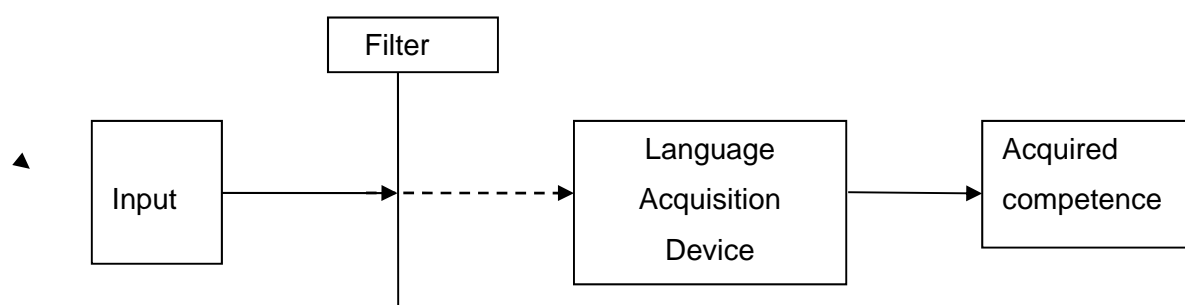


Figure 3.1: Operation of the Affective Filter (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 39)

Dulay and Burt (1977) argue that learners with optimal attitudes and motivation towards learning the second language have a lower affective filter. A low filter means that learners are more open to the input and this will in turn encourage the learners to try to get more input, to interact with speakers of the target language with more confidence, and also to be more receptive to the input they get. On the other hand, learners whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will have a high affective filter and they will most likely seek less input. Krashen argues that even if learners understand the message, "the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition, or the language acquisition device" (Krashen 1985: 31). Therefore, a learner with a high affective filter will acquire less of the target language than a learner with a low affective filter.

It is therefore important that the teacher does not only provide comprehensible input, but also contribute to a low affective filter by creating a learner-friendly environment with a low anxiety level. This can be achieved by creating a relaxed atmosphere, where the emphasis is on interesting input and effective communication, and not on structures and forms (Richards & Rodgers 1986). Conteh-Morgan (2002) concurs by suggesting that the social context of the classroom should provide a low affective filter, and advises that the moment the learners enter the class they must experience a non-threatening atmosphere. She recommends that the “welcoming smile, the introduction, the allaying of fears, and appropriate ice-breaker activities will all help lower the filter and effect the smooth intake of new information” (Conteh-Morgan 2002:173). Thus, the atmosphere in the classroom is crucial and the use of different methods and techniques can assist the teacher to make classrooms “places of joy and energy, free from embarrassment, fear and anxiety” (Weideman 2002: 61).

There is, however, some criticism of Krashen’s hypothesis. Lightbown and Spada (1999) argue that it is difficult to be sure that affective factors cause the differences in language acquisition. “It seems likely that success in acquisition may in itself contribute to more positive motivation or, in Krashen’s terms, to a ‘lowered affective filter’” (1999: 40).

3.4.5 Balanced language approach (BLA)

The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011: 14) for Afrikaans First Additional Language prescribes a text-based, communicative, integrated and process approach to language teaching. In the Teacher Orientation Manual for the Intermediate Phase training for the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R - 12 (Western Cape Education Department 2012: 34), the preferred approach to language teaching is identified as the balanced language approach (BLA). According to the manual, the BLA “balances various approaches to the teaching of reading and uses all language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in a balanced way.” In the discussion of the principles of the BLA (Western Cape Education Department 2012: 34), however, no mention is made of the initial development of listening and speaking as very important language skills. The focus is on the development of reading and writing. Freppon and Dahl (1998) confirm this when they state that the emphasis of balanced instruction is on elementary and beginner reading skills.

Weaver (1998) discusses different interpretations of the BLA. On the one hand, there is the vision of the balanced approach as “a structured program for teaching, assessing, and remediating reading – an approach wherein teachers will explicitly teach phonemic

awareness, phonics, and other word-attack skills". On the other hand, to others the BLA seems to be "an eclectic approach, a little of this and a little of that, like a tossed salad, with no particular relationship among the various ingredients" (Weaver 1998: xv). Freppon and Dahl (1998: 246) raise their concerns about the eclectic approach as "it may encourage teachers who don't have a well-defined philosophy to think they can just do lots of things or anything without hard thinking and identification of their philosophical base". What the aforementioned views have in common is their primary focus on the teaching of reading and writing. Weaver seems to support the first interpretation of the BLA as a structured programme when she describes a BLA as "a balanced reading program [that] focuses on using skills like phonemic awareness and phonics knowledge in the service of strategies for constructing meaning from text" (Weaver 1998: 12). She continues by arguing "for instruction based on a coherent integration of the best of differing bodies and types of research and a theory of reading that puts meaning at the heart of reading from the very beginning, rather than as some distant goal" (Weaver 1998: 14). Practical classroom practices drawn from Weaver's interpretation include:

- Helping children develop phonics knowledge through language play with familiar texts, (reading, rereading, rhymes, poems, songs, and playing with sound elements);
- Talking about letter-sound relationships when writing in front of children and helping them write word sounds they hear;
- Keeping the emphasis on meaning during reading and writing (Freppon & Dahl 1998: 245).

Tompkins (1997) is another researcher who developed her own interpretation of a balanced approach. She integrates theory, research and recommended instructional practice from interactive and reader response perspectives. Tompkins argues that knowledge of the alphabet and phonics skills are both a prerequisite for, and a consequence of, learning to read. Freppon and Dahl (1998) agree with Tomkins and make very specific recommendations for practice:

- High-utility phonics concept (e.g. teach word patterns) rather than rule learning, and instruction that uses a whole-part-whole perspective;
- Teaching with mini-lessons; helping children use multiple cues for getting words; and implementing explicit instruction that uses word walls, word sorting, and rich literature discussions;
- A high level of teacher scaffolding with individual and small group help as well as some whole-class instruction (Freppon & Dahl 1998: 243).

Tompkins (1997) argues that effective teachers “scaffold or support learners’ reading and writing as they demonstrate, guide, and teach, and they vary the amount of support they provide according to their instructional purpose and the learners’ needs” (Tompkins 1997: 25). Teachers move through five levels of support, from the greatest amount of support to the least as learners assume more and more of the responsibility for themselves. The levels are: modelled reading and writing; shared reading and writing; interactive reading and writing; guided reading and writing; and independent reading and writing.

McIntyre and Pressley’s (1996) conception of balanced instruction is situated within whole language principles including:

- respect for children as learners;
- belief in the functional uses of reading and writing;
- belief that children must engage in the whole processes of reading and writing; and
- regard for the significance of the social and cultural dimensions of learning.

McIntyre and Pressley (1996) argue that explicit, planned instruction in specific skills has often not been a part of whole language programmes, despite research that encourages their inclusion (Freppon & Headings 1996; Newman & Church 1990). McIntyre and Pressley (1996: 12) describe balanced instruction as a useful term for good teaching, which is “thoughtful, planned instruction based on children’s background, interests, strengths, and needs”. Their view draws attention to the social and cultural dimensions of learner’s learning, and includes the provision of extensive and systematic skills instruction specifically for learners “for whom the language of school is not part of their own culture”.

Tompkins (2009) is of the opinion that different interpretations of a balanced approach to language teaching lead to the implementation of a variety of balanced programmes in classrooms, yet they usually embody the following characteristics:

- Literacy is viewed comprehensively, as involving both reading and writing;
 - Literature is at the heart of the programme;
 - Skills and strategies are taught both directly and indirectly;
 - Reading instruction involves learning word recognition and identification, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension;
 - Writing instruction involves learning to express meaningful ideas and use conventional spelling, grammar, and punctuation to express those ideas;
-

- Learners use reading and writing as tools for learning in the content areas;
- The goal is to develop lifelong readers and writers (Tompkins 2009: 25).

To summarise, there are two schools of thoughts about BLA. On the one hand, several researchers emphasise the importance of phonics teaching and learning within integrated language-based instruction, and on the other hand, there are those who support the separation of phonics teaching and learning. These differences have an impact on the implementing of reading programmes as well as the development of exemplary practice. The implementation of reading programmes is determined by teachers' interpretation of relevant research and teachers' interpretations change as the teachers grow professionally and encounter more and more learners with different needs and strengths. Ultimately, the teachers in the classrooms have to rely on their own theory-based philosophy and make informed instructional decisions (Freppon & Dahl 1998).

3.4.6 Looking into the future

Richards (1990) is of the opinion that for many years language teaching has been searching for the right method, a method which would work for all learners in all contexts, and that such a method would solve all language teaching problems once and for all. According to Nunan (1995), it became clear that there never was and probably never will be such a method for all. In recent years the focus has been on the development of classroom tasks and activities which are consonant with what we know about processes of additional language acquisition, and which are also in keeping with the dynamics of the classroom itself. Kumaravadivelu (1994) refers to the post-method condition upon which a new pedagogic framework may be constructed.

Such a framework could enable teachers to develop the knowledge, skill, attitude, and autonomy necessary to devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant alternative to method that is informed by principled pragmatism. Although the purpose of such a framework is to help teachers become autonomous decision makers, it should, without denying the value of individual autonomy, provide adequate conceptual underpinnings based on current theoretical, empirical, and pedagogic insight so that their teaching act may come about in a principled fashion. In short, it should allow the possibility for activating and developing teachers' sense of plausibility and create in them a sense of interested involvement (Kumaravadivelu 1994: 31).

The next section will discuss the use of learning and teaching support materials (LTSM) in the first additional language classroom.

3.5 LEARNING AND TEACHING SUPPORT MATERIALS (LTSM)

Materials, whether commercially developed or teacher-produced, are an important element within the curriculum, and are often its most tangible and visible aspect (Nunan 1991). It is the teaching materials that put flesh on the bones of the goals and objectives and the linguistic and experiential content of the syllabus. Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that instructional materials can provide detailed specifications of content, even in the absence of a syllabus. Wright (1987) argues that some materials are designed to be used by inexperienced or poorly trained teachers, while others are intended to replace teachers completely. The best materials, if used in the ways intended by their designers, can be useful professional development tools.

Learning and teaching support material are especially important in developing countries, as many schools lack material resources, such as age- and culture-appropriate reading materials for children. The limited academic and professional training of some teachers often compound the problem. In these situations good LTSM can play a central role in defining a more structured approach to what subject matter is taught and how it is taught. Research conducted by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) showed that in 2007 only 45% of South African learners had their own textbooks (Department of Basic Education 2011). In an attempt to honour the national commitment from government in the President of South Africa's 2011 State of the Nation address, when he called on his administration to "ensure that every child has a textbook on time", the DBE will introduce a new system of providing and selecting LTSM. This new system has two goals: "to ensure only high quality material is offered to schools and ensuring all learners and teachers have the support material they need" (Department of Basic Education 2011).

3.5.1 Textbooks

Although the textbook seems to be an old and trusted companion of the language teacher, Swales (1980) raises the concern that no single given textbook will be capable of catering for the diversity of needs that exist in most language classrooms. Yet on the other hand, excellent commercial materials fulfil an important function by removing much of the burden and time involved in creating materials from scratch. When teachers select commercial materials, they must ensure that the materials are matched with the goals and outcomes of the programme, as well as with the teacher's beliefs about the nature of language and learning, as well as with the learners' attitudes, beliefs and preferences (Nunan 1995).

Fortunately, the Department of Basic Education has taken this burden of selecting good textbooks from the teachers' shoulders.

For First Additional Languages for Grades 4 – 6 publishers were invited to submit LTSM, which had to consist of a core reader, graded readers, a textbook and a teacher's guide. The core reader is a single reader containing all five genres required by CAPS for the grade, namely folklore, poetry, drama, novel and short story. The suggested number of texts per genre is indicated which should be sufficient to cover a year's work according to the CAPS programme as well as additional examples to provide schools with some freedom of choice. It is suggested that the use of colour in the textbooks should be confined to instances where it would enhance the meaning of the text and learner engagement. The reason for this suggestion is probably to make the books more affordable and therefore more accessible to all schools. The graded readers should be used for guided, group reading and should comply with the following prescriptions:

Graded readers should comprise of a set of readers containing 12 – 20 readers with 32 – 48 pages in each. The readers should be illustrated; the use of full colour is preferred for higher levels of learner engagement. The readers should provide both fiction and non-fiction texts, have a high interest level and cover a spread of topics that cater for all contexts. The readers must be graded in complexity. Each story should be followed by 3-5 questions for group discussion (Department of Basic Education 2012: 15).

According to the DBE guidelines provided to publishers, a textbook should:

- Focus on teaching the concepts and communicate the knowledge stated in the relevant CAPS document;
- Be at an appropriate reading level for the intended grade;
- Include a clear explanation of new terms and use them a few times in well constructed sentences to ensure learners understand the context and use of the new vocabulary;
- Include activities that have clear instructions, be easy to understand and not require costly equipment;
- Be organised in a way that provides a structured, well-paced and sequenced learning plan for the grade;
- Be easy to navigate, through the use of headings, subheadings, captions and labels for diagrams etc.;

- Include the use of colour to support the clarity of representations, as opposed to being decorative, while the font should be clear and readable (Department of Basic Education 2012: 12 – 13).

The inclusion of different kinds of texts and a variety of genres will enable the learners to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks. The above requirements call for materials that are comprehensible, relevant and interesting to the learners, and will allow exchange of information between learners themselves as well as between the teacher and the learners (Nunan 1995: 213).

Although the CAPS documents for FAL for Grades 4 – 6 prescribe a text-based, integrated, communicative and process approach to the teaching of the additional languages, there is no explicit reference to the methodology in the above guidelines to the publishers. The only reference to the CAPS document is the inclusion of knowledge as stated in the CAPS. The guidelines provided for the teacher's guides, however, are much more comprehensive and, if adhered to by the publishers, will probably enable even poorly trained teachers and novice teachers to teach with more confidence. Each unit/module/chapter of the teacher's guide should include the following:

- An overview of the unit/module/chapter;
- Step-by-step guidelines on how to implement the activity. These need to be in sufficient detail to enable the teacher to implement the activity. However, they need to be flexible so that teachers can easily adjust the activity to suit their learners' needs;
- Clear references to the use of other components (page referencing to activities in the Textbook and the Core Reader);
- Useful background knowledge to increase the teacher's understanding of key concepts;
- Assessment: Information on what can be assessed and how; publishers need to provide teachers with a framework for assessment for the year, although it will be up to the individual teacher to make the final decision on the assessment he/she will use in the classroom;
- Suggestions for extension/remedial activities may also be included. (Department of Basic Education 2012: 13)

The DBE further requires that the Teacher's Guide must:

- Be written in user-friendly language;
- Have an appropriate and user-friendly design and layout;
- Encourage critical thinking and metacognitive strategies;
- Provide the teacher with sufficient learner tasks to enable the learner to achieve the requirements of the CAPS;
- Provide learner tasks which are appropriate for the level of learners in terms of grade level, language, knowledge, skills and concepts;
- Reflect the pedagogic principles contained in the CAPS;
- Show a balance between individual, pair, group and class activities;
- Reflect the values stated in the Constitution, e.g. sensitivity to gender, race, culture and religion;
- Clearly explain the assessment within the activity/unit. (Department of Basic Education 2012: 13 - 14)

In many cases the prescribed LTSM pack will be the only resource that the teacher will use when teaching the additional language. What seem to be lacking in the requirements for textbooks and teacher's guides are a focus on the nature and acquisition of knowledge as well as a focus on the nature of language learning (Nunan 1995: 209). The publishers are not expected to include information on how learners acquire or learn an additional language, neither do the publishers have to include a section in the teacher's guide on the theories and methodologies underpinning additional language teaching. This is quite an important omission, as different approaches and methods in language teaching imply different roles for teachers and learners (Richards & Rodgers 1986). For the poorly trained teacher, or the teacher who is not a language specialist, the textbook will only become a recipe book which he/she will follow blindly without knowing or understanding why things are done in a certain way. Nunan (1995:214) warns against "publishers falling into the trap of overburdening the user with an embarrassment of information which may result in language lessons becoming a fragmented 'cabaret' of unintegrated activities". Publishers will also have to ensure that the activities included in the textbooks will provide opportunities for genuine communication with a real purpose. Given the diverse South African context, publishers will also have the additional challenge of reflecting cultural attitudes which are not inappropriate to the vast majority of learners (Nunan 1995).

3.5.2 Technology as teaching and learning tool

In recent years the technology used in language teaching and learning has developed rapidly. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), there are two main ways to think about the role technology plays in language teaching and learning. Firstly, technology is seen as providing teaching resources, and secondly, technology is regarded as providing enhanced learning experiences. For years the technology was only chalk and a blackboard. Later film, audio and video recording equipment were added. Nowadays there are digital technological tools available to many teachers. Computers are not only teaching tools in themselves, but they also provide the means to access online resources, e.g. the world wide web, which in turn opens up a whole new world to both teachers and learners. Access can be gained to online dictionaries, grammar and style checkers, etc.; therefore technology is no longer only a resource that teachers can use to enhance their teaching, but it also provides learners with greater access to the target language. The availability of technology has the potential to change where and when learning takes place.

Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) are of the opinion that neither one of the two approaches to technology constitutes a method; however, “the use of technology for the latter [to provide learners with greater access to the target language] is at least a significant methodological innovation” (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011: 200). Kern (2006) supports this sentiment:

Rapid evolution of communication technologies has changed language pedagogy and language use, enabling new forms of discourse, new forms of authorship, and new ways to create and participate in communities (Kern 2006: 183).

Although a classroom setting with the teacher in front at the blackboard/whiteboard and the learners at their desks reading from a textbook is still the norm in many parts of the world, it is giving way to the practice of learners working independently or collaboratively at computers or other technological resources. In these interactions the learners use a new discourse with features of both written and oral language. In addition to enhancing language learning experiences, technology also contributes to reshaping our understanding of the nature of language: language is not a fixed system. On the contrary, it is always changing and being changed by those who use it (Larsen-Freeman 2011).

Technology also allows teaching to be tailored to the individual to a greater extent than is possible under circumstances where technology is not used. A number of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) programs can adapt to the needs of diverse learners by analysing

their input and providing customised feedback and remedial exercises suited to their proficiency. By linking learners through networked computers, greater social interaction can be achieved, which addresses Vygotsky's (1978) claim that learning takes place through social interaction. Although this interaction occurs mainly through writing, it provides the opportunity for reflection and analysis at a later stage. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) are convinced that the use of CALL programmes has many advantages, e.g. greater individualisation, social interaction and reflection on language. Chapelle (2010) adds to the list of advantages by arguing that CALL activities with language learning potential provide opportunities for learning by, for example, directing learners' attention to linguistic form, providing help with comprehension and production, and providing opportunities for error correction. Kern (2006: 200) warns against relying too much on technology in our teaching: "it is not technology per se that affects the learning of language and culture but the particular use of technology. This emphasis on use highlights the central importance of pedagogy and the teacher".

Van Lier (2003: 52) agrees with Kern: "if [technology] is to be a positive force in education, [it] should not be cast as an alternative to classroom teaching, or as replacing the teacher, but as a tool that facilitates meaningful and challenging classroom work." It is therefore important that teachers should be knowledgeable about technology and if they choose to use it, they should do so in pedagogically sound ways. Technology should be integrated into the curriculum and not just added on because it is new and frees up the teacher.

3.6 THE FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHER

Each one of the different language teaching methods and approaches discussed in section 3.4 ascribes certain roles to the language teacher. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) suggests an integrated and communicative approach and the CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a: 14) for Afrikaans First Additional Language prescribes the communicative approach to language teaching, which should include a text-based, integrated and process approach. Therefore this section will focus on the roles and range of knowledge of the teacher in the communicative language teaching (CLT) classroom. Nunan (1987) is of the opinion that there are few opportunities for genuine communicative language use in second language classrooms and reports:

There is growing evidence that, in communicative classes, interactions may, in fact, not be very communicative after all ... It is teachers themselves who need to become the prime agents of change through an increased sensitivity to what is really happening in their classes (Nunan 1987: 144).

This view is supported by Long and Sato's report, which states: "ESL teachers continue to emphasise form over meaning, accuracy over communication" (Long and Sato 1983: 283). This change that Nunan (1987) refers to can only happen when teachers are trained in all aspects of CLT and the methodology or approach becomes part of their theoretical framework and knowledge base on additional language teaching and learning.

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 3) describes South African teachers as qualified, competent, dedicated and compassionate. The collective roles of teachers in a school are prescribed in *The Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications* (Republic of South Africa 2011a: 49 – 50) as:

- Specialist in a phase, subject discipline or practice;
- Learning mediator;
- Interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials;
- Leader, administrator and manager;
- Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- Assessor; and
- Community, citizenship and pastoral role.

Medgyes's (1986) description of a language teacher in the communicative classroom summarises the general expectations in a nutshell:

The communicative classroom requires a teacher of extraordinary abilities: a multi-dimensional, high-tech, Wizard-of-Oz-like superperson – yet of flesh and blood. He or she must be confident without being conceited, judicious without being judgemental, ingenious without being unbridled, technically skilled without being pedantic, far-sighted without being far-fetched, down-to-earth without being earth-bound, inquiring without being inquisitive ... But above all he or she must be *learner-centred* (Medgyes 1986 : 107).

Alexander (2000) lists the following conditions as the most frequently quoted in the international research as important for instruction in an additional language:

- Teachers' language proficiency in the target language;
 - Teachers' competence as language teachers with an understanding of problems of learning in a second language and how to overcome these;
 - Exposure to the target language outside the classroom;
 - The provision of graded language textbooks, especially in the content subjects in the early phases of learning (Alexander 2000:13).
-

The first condition, namely teachers' competence as language teachers, which includes the different kinds of teacher knowledge, has already been discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.4). I will continue to discuss the second condition, namely teachers' language proficiency in the target language, in detail in section 3.6.1.

3.6.1 Teacher language proficiency

There seem to be a number of interpretations of the notion of teacher language proficiency. For the purpose of this study the definition of proficiency in the context of additional language teaching and learning is the actual linguistic proficiency of the teacher. This proficiency, according to Bachman and Palmer (1996), encompasses language knowledge of six interrelated areas, namely:

organizational knowledge pertaining to the way in which texts are structured; grammatical knowledge including knowledge of vocabulary, syntax and phonology/graphology; textual knowledge, which includes knowledge of cohesion and knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organization; pragmatic knowledge, related to the communicative goals of the language user and the context in which the language is being used; functional knowledge including an understanding of ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative functions, as well as socio-linguistic knowledge (Bachman & Palmer 1996: 68).

Chastain (1989) argues that proficiency should not only be measured in terms of linguistic accuracy, but that the communicative aspect should also be taken into account:

... the stress in second language learning and teaching [has shifted] from a language-based curriculum to a communication-based curriculum, and greater importance is placed on functional approaches. This orientation leads to a recognition that linguistic accuracy is only one component of proficiency and to an emphasis on communication as opposed to the memorization of linguistic forms for discrete-point test items (Chastain 1989: 49).

Norris (1999: 43 - 44) highlights three different interpretations of linguistic proficiency. The first interpretation refers to the language teacher's proficiency as the teacher's competency in the four macro skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. The second interpretation is a much more complex understanding of the interrelated aspects of language proficiency:

[Proficiency incorporates] capability for use which includes the socio-linguistic element, the strategic element as described by Bachman, the context, role, relationship, purpose, pragmatics and how the language is used – strong linguistic awareness in the technical sense (Norris 1999: 44).

The third, and most common, interpretation of linguistic proficiency emphasises the need for teachers to be able to communicate successfully in the classroom environment:

Proficiency is about performance – it is about being able to perform in the language as the situation demands in the classroom – to conduct lessons in the target language, especially as we move to a more embedded approach ... So instead of talking about bus tickets, we are asking teacher to explain the life cycle of the guinea pig. Their ability to communicate with colleagues in the target language, their ability to access the internet in the target language (Norris 1999: 44).

There is general agreement that a teacher of English Second Language (ESL) needs to be both a proficient user and a skilled analyst of the language, and that “the more aware a teacher is of language and how it works, the better” (Wright & Bolitho 1993: 292). This view is supported by Richards (1998: 15), who states that “language teachers must understand the nature of language and language use”. In the Australian context the ESL teacher is expected to understand language as a socio-cultural meaning system and how language is structured for use (Hogan 1994). The importance of the teachers’ proficiency in the target language is emphasised by a study conducted by Nel and Müller (2010). They found that teachers made basic mistakes such as grammatical errors, incorrect use of tenses, concord and spelling errors. This resulted in the following errors in the learners’ use of the target language:

- Phonological errors occur when L2 learners are taught by L2 teachers, in the sense that incorrect sound, stress and intonation patterns as well as faulty pronunciation are transferred;
- Spelling errors are modeled by L2 teachers and L2 learners learn the incorrect spelling;
- L1 transfer takes place on a syntactic level (modelled by the teacher);
- Over-generalisation as a result of intra-lingual transfer (modelled by the teacher), where a rule is applied in L2 where it is unnecessary;
- Grammatical errors, for example the use of prepositions, are a problem (Nel & Müller 2010: 639 – 640).

Communicating effectively in the classroom requires that the teachers use appropriate language for the age group and skill level of the learners they are teaching, and that they are able to apply the language to the practical situation of being in a classroom. Responses from language teachers participating in a study conducted in Australia (Norris 1999: 44) indicated that “the ability to conduct a class in that language from beginning to end using [the target language] for all commands was an essential element of language teacher proficiency – if they are not able to, then it is not adequate knowledge to teach LOTE [languages other than English]”. One respondent argued that a vital aspect of this was the ability to manipulate language to deal with anything: “A measure of proficiency is to be able to use the language

confidently and competently in unpredictable situations. Having the skill and language to get through” (Norris 1999: 45).

This does not imply that native speaker proficiency is necessary to conduct a class well. What participants regarded as necessary was the teacher’s confidence in using the language: “Teachers need to be comfortable and confident with language speaking at the particular level that they are teaching it” and “By adequate I mean a level that they feel confident and competent to teach the language in. People don’t necessarily need native speaker proficiency to operate well in a classroom. But it would be a great help!” (Norris 1999: 45). Widdowson (1994) is also not convinced that native speakers of the target language are necessarily the ideal language teachers, as he argues that the native speakers might have an advantage in the “context of language use” but not necessarily in the “context of language learning” (Widdowson 1994: 387). Medgyes (1992) agrees with Widdowson that native speaking teachers have an advantage because of their high proficiency in the target language, but that non-native speaking teachers have the advantage of serving as a good learning model.

The minimum language requirements for teachers in South Africa currently require a teacher to be able to teach proficiently in one official language and to be reasonably fluent in another (Murray 2002). Young (2001: 35), however, suggests that these requirements should be tightened up and “teachers should not qualify without being rigorously trained and assessed as bilingual or trilingual”.

3.6.2 The teacher as facilitator of language learning

Breen and Candlin (1980) expand on the above roles of the communicative language teacher. The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher: first, as an organiser of resources and as a resource himself; second, as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities; and a third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organisational capacities (Breen & Candlin 1980: 99).

Brown and McIntyre (1992 in Williams & Burden 1997: 48) identify ten aspects of a language teacher's role as facilitator of learning:

- creating a relaxed and enjoyable atmosphere in the classroom;
- retaining control in the classroom;
- presenting work in an interesting and motivating way;
- providing conditions so learners understand the work;
- making clear what learners are to do and achieve;
- judging what can be expected of a learner;
- helping learners with difficulties;
- encouraging learners to raise their expectations of themselves;
- developing personal, mature relationships with learners; and
- demonstrating personal talents or knowledge.

In addition to the above dimensions of the teacher's role as facilitator, the teacher also needs to be an analyst of the learners' language needs and be able to respond to these needs. This may be done informally and personally through one-on-one discussions with learners, or in a more formal way through administering a needs assessment instrument (Richards & Rodgers 1986). They add another role, that of counsellor, to the already long list. In this role the teacher must exemplify "an effective communicator seeking to maximise the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback" (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 78).

In the learner-centred communicative classroom the teacher needs to have excellent classroom management skills. It is the teacher's responsibility to organise the classroom setting to be conducive to communication and communicative activities. Littlewood (1981) and Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) suggest that during group activities the teacher monitors, encourages and notes gaps or mistakes in lexicon, grammar and strategy without interfering in group discussions. After the conclusion of group activities, the teacher can point out the gaps and suggest alternatives and suggestions in order to assist the learners. Such actions, however, imply that the teacher should be adequately proficient in the target language and non-native teachers may feel threatened and will need special training. The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in CLT might be difficult for the teacher who is used to error suppression and correction as the major focus of language instruction (Richards & Rodgers 1986).

The Afrikaans FAL teacher has an additional facilitative role to play, that of motivator and creator of a relaxed, non-threatening and learner-friendly environment in the additional language classroom. Because of the political history of South Africa (as discussed in section 3.2), Afrikaans has been labelled as “the language of the oppressor” (Heugh 2008; Alexander 2000; Plüddeman 2000). This connotation resulted in very negative attitudes towards Afrikaans. English is regarded as the language of opportunities and prestige (Da Rocha 2010; de Klerk 1996) and therefore most parents choose English as medium of instruction for their children, even though their home language may be Afrikaans. As a result the teacher in the Afrikaans FAL classroom has to deal with the negative attitudes of the learners towards Afrikaans as language. Several researchers (Dulay & Burt 1977; Lightbown & Spada 1999; Krashen 1983, 1987; Richards & Rodgers 1986) have written about the importance of a low affective filter in the additional language classroom. A low affective filter is the result of the learner’s positive motivation, the learner’s self-confidence and good self-image, and low personal anxiety as well as low classroom anxiety (Richards & Rodgers 1986: 133). The teachers’ attitude towards the learners can also have a significant influence upon the expectations they hold for learners’ learning, their treatment of learners, and what learners ultimately learn (Irvine 1990). Affirming attitudes, for example, have been shown to support learner achievement (Lucas, Henze & Donato 1990).

The additional language teacher must strategically organise the learning environment and teaching in order to lower the affective filter of learners in his or her classroom. It is the responsibility of the teacher to facilitate learning, by presenting learners with materials, situations and experiences that allow them to discover new learning. The teacher must be aware that an over-emphasis on error correction, laughing at learners’ mistakes or placing learners in awkward or high-risk environments may tend to increase the affective filter and inhibit language development. It is imperative that the teacher emphasises to the learners the importance of not making fun of their peers or laughing at errors made by other learners. This will foster a spirit of tolerance and acceptance towards one another, which will help to create a safe and affirming environment in which learners will take risks and view errors as a natural progression of language learning.

Savignon (2002) summarises the features of the CLT classroom and by implication the role of the teacher in the communicative classroom as follows:

An emphasis on language use rather than language knowledge; greater emphasis on fluency and appropriateness in the use of the target language than structural correctness; minimal focus on form with corresponding low emphasis on error correction and explicit instruction on language rules or grammar; classroom tasks

and exercises that depend on spontaneity and student trial-and-error and that encourage negotiation of meaning between students and students and teachers; use of authentic materials; an environment that is interactive, not excessively formal, encourages risk-taking and promotes student autonomy; teachers serving more as facilitators and participants than in the traditional didactic role; and students being actively involved in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning. In short, the approach puts the focus on the learner (Savignon 2002: 3).

3.6.3 The teacher as mediator of language learning

The Literacy and Numeracy Strategy of the WCED (2006) subscribes to the constructivist and social constructivist theories of learning and therefore regards the learners as active participants in the learning process. Constructivist theories emphasise the activity of both learners and teachers in the schools as they construct and re-construct knowledge. Teachers should therefore move away from the concepts of passive learning which behaviourism had pursued in the past, where teachers transmitted knowledge to the learners. The Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (Western Cape Education Department 2006) describes the task of teachers as follows:

Teachers encourage knowledge construction instead of knowledge reproduction. They emphasise authentic tasks in a meaningful context. This entails the presentation of real-world settings and the actual problems and debates encountered in disciplinary inquiry constructivist learning environments “enable context- and content-dependent knowledge construction”. It also entails the facilitation of case-based learning instead of predetermined sequences of instruction without any engagement with context (Western Cape Education Department 2006: 8).

This does not mean the teacher is now redundant and has no role to play in the classroom. Teaching, like learning, must be concerned with teachers making sense of, or meaning from, the situations in which they find themselves. Williams and Burden (1997) hold the opinion that constructivism does not prescribe any one right way to teach. Von Glasersfeld supports this view:

Constructivism cannot tell teachers new things to do, but it may suggest why certain attitudes and procedures are counter-productive, and it may point out opportunities for teachers to use their own spontaneous imagination (Von Glasersfeld in Williams & Burden 1997: 51).

The Foundations for Learning (Republic of South Africa 2008) regards the teacher's scaffolding of the language learner as one of the teacher's most important tasks in the learner's journey to become a skilled and functional reader. The teacher's support should scaffold the learner in developing all the language skills. This means that, when a task is difficult, the learner may need full teacher support, but as the learner gains skills and

knowledge, he or she can become more independent and can share the task with the teacher. Once the learner can do the task independently, without the help of the teacher, the teacher can remove the scaffold. Teachers should include activities as whole class work, group work, pair work and individual work in an attempt to scaffold learners in this way. Figure 3.2 shows some simple steps how the reading and writing of different genre (types of text) can be scaffolded. This process links very closely with the steps suggested by the WCED (2012: 36) in the implementation of the Balanced Language Approach (BLA) for the teaching of languages in the intermediate phase. The WCED (2012) encourages teachers to start with fully scaffolded reading aloud by the teacher, where the teacher demonstrates how reading should be done, moving to shared reading, where the teacher and learners read together, progressing on to group-guided reading and eventually independent reading by the learner on his or her own. The same process can be followed simultaneously for the teaching of writing. This approach supports Vygotsky's idea of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), where the learner is assisted in his or her development by a more knowledgeable adult, the teacher, or peer.

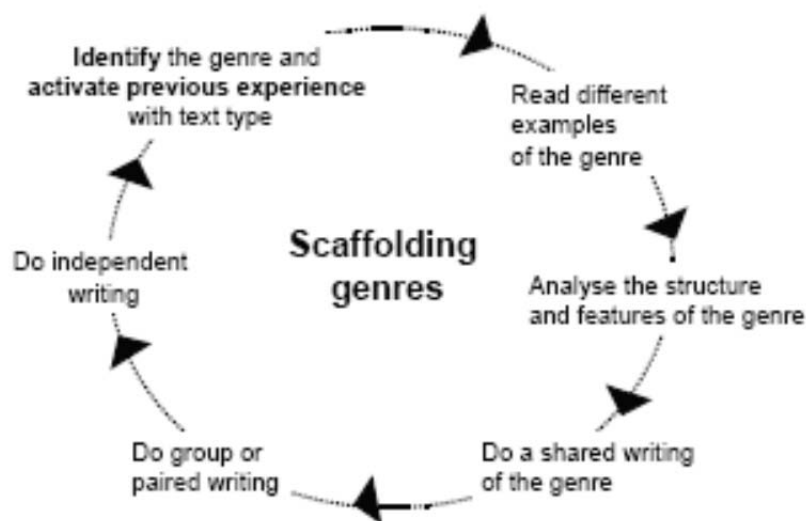


Figure 3.2: Steps in scaffolding reading and writing of different genre. (Department of Education, 2008: 10)

The function of the teacher as mediator is therefore to promote the learners' confident adaptability by enhancing their security and making them aware of their own powers and their own worth. The ideal teacher would strengthen the confidence of the student in his own capabilities, and make sure in doing so that the student was learning to assess these capabilities realistically and to exercise them with due regard for the collective interest and

the rights of others. He would interpret the student's perceptions in terms of past history, future probability and the widest perspectives of global morality (Purpell 1989: 57).

The next section will briefly discuss the FAL learners in a learner-centred classroom environment and how their learning styles and attitudes towards the target language affect the acquisition of the target language.

3.7 THE FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNER

Although the focus of this study is on the teaching of Afrikaans as first additional language (FAL), and the emphasis is on policy, the curriculum, teaching methods and approaches and the FAL teacher, some attention should be devoted to the FAL learner and what he or she brings to the classroom. Various researchers have identified factors influencing the learner and first additional language learning (Richards & Rodgers 1986; Krashen 1982, 1985; Nunan 1995; Stern 1983; Dörnyei & Skehan 2003; Brown 2001). The following section will briefly focus on some of these factors, namely learning styles and strategies, learning aptitude, affective factors and interaction between the learner and the learning environment.

3.7.1 A learner-centred learning environment

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a), CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) and the Western Cape Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (2006) promote the shift from a teacher-centred approach to teaching and learning to a learner-centred approach to teaching and learning. This implies that the teacher now becomes the facilitator of learning instead of the only source of knowledge and wisdom, and the learner is, or should be, the central figure in the language class. In line with social constructivism and social-cultural theory, the learner now has to take responsibility for his or her own learning by becoming an active participant in constructing knowledge, with the guidance and support of the teacher and other more knowledgeable peers through collaborative interaction. In CLT the focus is no longer only on the development of the learner's linguistic competence. The significance of communicative competence, which includes sociolinguistic competence and the functional aspect of language, has been foregrounded. The involvement of the learner's communicative knowledge and abilities should be facilitated from the outset and the curriculum should incorporate that which the learner already knows and can do (Breen & Candlin 1980). Breen and Candlin also argue that it is not only the learner's prior knowledge that should be acknowledged in the FAL classroom, but also their expectations about the learning of the target language.

What is the learner's own view of the nature of language? What is the learner's view of learning a language? ... We can also distinguish between, first, how the learner defines his own language learning needs; secondly, what is likely to interest the learner both within the target repertoire and the learning process; and third, what the learner's motivations are for learning the target repertoire (Breen & Candlin 1980: 94).

The results of a study conducted by Gillette (1994) on the role of learner goals in FAL success emphasise the importance of the learner's motivation for learning the target language:

An analysis of the language learning diaries reveals that students who view language study only as a requirement openly limit their language learning effort to what they perceive as necessary to pass a given course or earn a certain grade. On the other hand, those students who have come to consider language as valuable in and of themselves are shown to make a far greater effort to acquire the target language. This approach also differs in kind from the limited attempts at second language acquisition made by the ineffective language learners in this study (Gillette 1994: 210).

As facilitators teachers need to apply a variety of teaching strategies to allow learners to demonstrate the learning they have mastered. One such strategy is where learners engage collaboratively in pairs or groups in order to enhance the acquisition of the additional language. Learners should be guided to provide outputs such as dialogues, role-plays and games. Such activities give learners opportunities to speak, listen, write and read (Killen 1998; Heugh, Siegrühn & Plüddemann 1995; Schlebusch & Thobedi 2004).

3.7.2 Learners' learning styles, strategies and aptitudes

Nunan (1995: 167) defines learning styles as "any individual's preferred ways of going about learning. It is generally considered that one's learning style will result from personality variables, including psychological and cognitive make-up, socio-cultural background and educational experience." According to Nunan (1988: 168), learning strategies "are the mental processes which learners employ to learn and use the target language". Faerch and Kasper (1983 cited in Ellis 1985) refer to these processes as procedural knowledge. Learners differ in learning styles, and therefore approach tasks with different sets of skills and strategies (Spolsky 1989; Lightbown & Spada 1993). Willing (1988: 1) is of the opinion that, if the learner's learning style and strategy preferences are accommodated in the classroom, it "can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment". Willing (1988) conducted a study of learning styles among ESL learners. One of the findings was that learners could be categorised by type; their preferences as set out below.

- Type 1: Concrete learners. These learners tend to like games, pictures, films, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs and practising English outside class.
- Type 2: Analytical learners. These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and reading newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes and working on problems set by the teacher.
- Type 3: Communicative learners. These students like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English and watching television in English, using English out of class in shops, trains, etc., learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversations.
- Type 4: Authority-oriented learners. These learners preferred the teacher to explain everything, liked to have their own textbook, to write everything in a notebook, to study grammar, learn by reading, and learn new words by seeing them (Nunan 1995: 170).

Willing (1988) and Van der Wal (2004) believe that teachers should take cognisance of the different learner types, know what their learners' preferences are and provide a range of learning options and activities in class which will allow learners some freedom to choose and practise their preferred way of learning. This will contribute to the fostering of learner autonomy in the learning process.

Some learners seem to learn or acquire the FAL faster than other learners. According to Stern (1983: 367), the concept of an aptitude for languages is "derived from everyday experience that some language learners appear to have a 'gift for languages' which others lack". Other researchers argue that aptitude is not a single factor, but a cluster of specific abilities (Skehan 1989; Spolsky 1989). Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2008: 483) define language learning aptitude as "a largely innate, relatively fixed talent for learning languages". This individual factor varies considerably within normal populations and has been found to be relatively independent of other factors, including general intelligence, personality, attitudes toward the language to be learned, and the motivation to learn it (Dörnyei & Skehan 2003; Skehan 2002; Sasaki 1996). Krashen (1981) suggests that aptitude is an important predictor of success in explicit learning, whereas attitudinal factors better predict the outcome of implicit acquisition. Krashen claims that aptitude is irrelevant to language acquisition, because unconscious and implicit, rather than conscious and explicit, processes are at work in natural language development. Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2008), however, refer to more recent studies by Harley and Hart (2002), DeKeyser (2000) which have suggested that

language aptitude may play a decisive role in naturalistic SLA – and perhaps an even more decisive role than it plays in instructed SLA – because acquiring a language implicitly, by having to discover grammatical regularities and phonetic patterns merely from language exposure, can be seen as an even greater challenge than learning it through pronunciation tutoring and explicit grammar instruction (Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam 2008: 486).

Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam's (2008: 503) own research results have revealed that "language aptitude is not a necessary condition for eventually sounding like a native speaker, but it is a significantly advantageous condition for attaining a level of L2 proficiency identical to that of native speakers".

3.7.3 Affective factors

Language learning often involves strong positive or negative emotions. The learners' attitude toward the classroom situation, the target language and the teacher may increase or decrease acquisition and learning. Learners who feel at ease and relaxed in the classroom, who like the teacher and have a positive attitude towards the target language will have a low affective filter, which will result in self-confidence and/or integrative motivation, thereby enhancing language intake and acquisition (Van der Wal 2004; Stern 1983; Krashen 1983; Nunan 1995; Gardner & Lambert 1972).

The social status of the target language in relation to the first language, and economic or political factors are also likely to influence motivation to learn an additional language. In South Africa Afrikaans is regarded by many as the language of the 'oppressor' because of its prominent role during the apartheid era and parents transfer their negative attitude towards the language to their children, who are the learners in the Afrikaans FAL class (Heugh 2008; Alexander 2000; Plüddeman 2000; Da Rocha 2010; de Klerk 1996).

Gardner (1975 in Stern 1983) distinguishes between four motivational categories that apply to learners of an additional language in a school setting.

- The first is attitude towards the community and people who speak the target language. This attitude prevails before the learner is placed in the learning situation.
- The second category refers to attitude towards the learning situation itself: how the learner feels about learning the target language in a specific course and from a particular teacher, and how he interprets his parents' feeling about learning the language. This category also includes the feelings of anxiety in the language class; the more relaxed and confident learners are assumed to be more proficient than

those who become anxious in the language class. This category refers to attitudes that develop during the learning process.

- The third category comprises the learner's motives for learning the language, the goals pursued by the learner, and the intensity of effort put into the language. This category includes both pre-learning factors and factors that only become evident in the course of learning.
- The fourth group of motivational variables consists of generalised attitudes. This category includes a general interest in foreign languages and certain personality characteristics: ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, anomie and a need for achievement (Gardner in Stern 1983: 383 – 384).

Gardner's model clearly expresses the view that just as aptitude cannot be treated as a unitary characteristic of the language learner, the affective aspect is also "something more than merely wanting to learn that language" (Gardner 1975: 71). It involves a variety of different components which together make up a total attitudinal orientation towards the target language. Results from research investigating the relationship between the affective state of the learner in the FAL classroom and the proficiency levels reached have shown that positive attitudes related to the language and the ethnolinguistic community is closely associated with higher levels of language proficiency. "Learners who have positive attitudes learn more, but also, learners who learn well acquire positive attitudes" (Stern 1983: 386).

3.8 SUMMARY

In Chapter 3 the researcher explored national language policies (see 3.2) and specifically the Language-in-Education Policy of 1997 and the impact they have on teaching. Although the LiEP acknowledges the right of every learner to be instructed in the language of his or her choice and every person's right to use the language of his or her choice within an education institution, the reality does not reflect this freedom of choice. Mother tongue education (MTE) in indigenous African languages is restricted to Grades 1 – 3. From Grade 4 onwards the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is either English or Afrikaans. The controversial matter of additive bilingualism has also been addressed and many researchers are of the opinion that the way in which it is implemented in South Africa is subtractive in nature.

The school curricula (see 3.3) of the apartheid government discriminated against black learners and provided them with an inferior education. After 1994 a national curriculum was

introduced in South Africa. This new curriculum was a new concept that coincided with the birth of a new democracy and had to respond to the new nation's needs. Yet this did not happen without any challenges. As a result of a lack of specificity in the curriculum and too much new and difficult jargon, teachers did not know how to teach in order to deliver the new curriculum effectively and so Curriculum 2005 was reviewed in 2002. This led to the introduction of the RNCS. With regard to the position of languages in the RNCS, learners were expected to take three languages at home language, first additional language and second additional language level. FAL learners had to achieve six learning outcomes, which were much the same as the outcomes for the home language. No time was allocated exclusively to FAL and schools were given carte blanche with regard to how much time they would spend on FAL. Because of its complex nature the RNCS was reviewed in 2009 and replaced with the more content-based CAPS. The ideal of developing multilingualism among learners has now faded away, as learners have to do only two languages: their home language and a first additional language. The outcomes have been replaced with the language skills of listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structures and conventions. All these skills should be integrated during the teaching of FAL and not addressed as separate aspects of the language.

That discussion was followed by a comprehensive overview of methodologies and approaches to additional language teaching, with the emphasis on communicative language teaching (CLT) as the preferred approach in both the RNCS and CAPS (see 3.4). Although many researchers regard CLT as an approach that focuses only on making and conveying meaning during interaction, Littlewood is of the opinion that CLT combines functional as well structural aspects of language. It was suggested that teachers should not choose only one method to teach the additional language, but that they must be empowered to make informed choices regarding the appropriate method or approach for a specific context.

Learning and teaching materials (LTSM), if used correctly, can be a useful tool in the classroom (see 3.5). Even in the classrooms of teachers with limited academic and professional training, good LTSM can play an important role in providing a more structured approach to language teaching. With the new LTSM catalogue for each subject the teachers no longer have the burden of selecting appropriate textbooks, as each book in the catalogue has gone through a rigorous screening process to guarantee high quality. The importance of the incorporation of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) was discussed. Technology has a dual role to play in the classroom. Firstly, it provides teaching resources, and secondly, it provides enhanced learning experiences. The use of technology in the classroom allows for

independent or collaborative learner engagement, which affords the teacher the opportunity to give individual attention to learners.

In order for FAL teachers to fulfill their numerous roles in the classroom, they should have different types of knowledge at their disposal (see 2.4, 3.6). These knowledges will allow the teacher to fulfil the roles of facilitator and mediator of learning optimally and create an inviting and learner-friendly atmosphere in the classroom, which will in turn lower the affective filter and motivate the learner to acquire the target language. Another requirement of FAL teachers is that they should be proficient in the target language and able to use the language confidently and competently. The teacher's proficiency in the target language is of great importance, as the FAL classroom may be the only opportunity that many learners have to hear the target language.

In a learner-centred classroom the learner is now the central figure in the teaching and learning situation (see 3.7). In a social constructivist paradigm the learners must take on the responsibility for his or her own learning with the guidance of the teacher or other more knowledgeable peers. A relaxed and caring learning environment should be created where a positive attitude and motivation will be fostered in order for the learner to be successful in his or her attempt to acquire and learn the target language. Teachers should take cognisance of the different learning styles and strategies of learners and adapt their teaching styles accordingly to create optimal learning opportunities. Other outside influences on the learner's attitude towards the target language were also discussed, such as political, economic and social factors.

Chapter 4 will concentrate on an appropriate research design and methodology to investigate the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL in Grade 4 – 6 classes in urban schools in the Western Cape.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the research methodology. The aim of the research, the research question and the scope of the research are discussed in detail. Following that, the research paradigm and research methodology, namely a mixed methods approach, will be described. The data-collecting instruments and techniques implemented by the researcher, namely questionnaires and interviews, as well as the data analysis process will be discussed in detail. In conclusion, the trustworthiness of the research, with reference to validity and reliability, will be investigated.

4.2 PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH

According to Babbie (1995: 84), the three most common and useful purposes of social research are exploration, description and explanation. Exploration concentrates on examining or exploring new or persistent phenomena. Exploratory studies are mostly done for three purposes, namely “(1) to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding, (2) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more careful study, and (3) to develop the methods to be employed in a more careful study” (Babbie 1995: 84). The shortcoming of exploratory studies lies in the fact that it does not always provide satisfactory answers to research questions. In descriptive research the researcher first observes situations accurately and precisely, and then describes what was observed. The third purpose of social research is to explain things. Explanatory research sets out to answer the explanatory question of why. Although it is useful to distinguish the three purposes of research, most studies may have elements of all three. For the purpose of this study the focus will fall on descriptive research.

The purpose of the research (see 1.5) is the achievement of the following objectives:

- To investigate the extent to which the national, provincial and school language policies with regards to Afrikaans First Additional Language teaching are being implemented in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools;
- To investigate whether intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teachers in WCED urban schools have adequate training in the FAL curriculum and methodology,

- To investigate whether teachers are proficient in the language they teach;
- To investigate the current methodologies and teaching materials used in Grades 4 – 6 in WCED urban schools for Afrikaans FAL;
- To inform decision making about curriculum and syllabus design in the CPUT Faculty of Education and Social Sciences for purposes of teacher training

4.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

This study focuses on the research question: *What is the current state of Afrikaans First Additional Language (FAL) teaching at Grade 4 - 6 levels in urban Western Cape schools?*

The research question has been divided into the following sub-questions:

- To what extent are the national, provincial and school language policies and plans for Afrikaans FAL in Grades 4 - 6 implemented at urban WCED schools?
- Are intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teachers in urban WCED primary schools adequately trained in FAL methodology and are they proficient in the language they teach?
- What methodologies and teaching materials do teachers of Afrikaans FAL in Western Cape urban schools use?

4.4 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM

The Oxford Dictionary (1976: 798) describes a paradigm as an example or pattern, that is, simplified examples that we use to illustrate procedures, processes and theoretical points. Creswell (2009: 6) refers to research paradigms as “philosophical worldviews” and describes a worldview as “a general orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher holds”. Guba (1990: 17) defines worldview as “a basic set of beliefs that guides action.” These worldviews are shaped by the discipline area of the researcher, the beliefs of advisers, colleagues and faculty in the researcher’s area, and past research experiences. These beliefs will either lead to selecting a qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods approach for the research.

Creswell (2009: 6-11) identifies four different worldviews or research paradigms, namely post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatism. The post-positive paradigm represents the traditional form of research and holds true more for quantitative

research than qualitative research. It is also called the scientific method or empirical science. The problems studied by post-positivists reflect the need to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes, such as found in experiments. The knowledge that develops through a post-positivist lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists in the world.

The social constructivist paradigm or worldview is often combined with interpretivism and is seen as an approach to qualitative research. Lincoln and Guba (2000), Neuman (2000) and Crotty (1998) agree that individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences in their search to understand the world in which they live and work. The goal of research within this paradigm is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation being studied. The questions are broad and general so that the participants can construct the meaning of a situation and the meanings are constructed through interactions or discussions with others. Henning (2004) argues that the role of the researcher as co-creator of meaning has become more important over the past twenty or thirty years. The researcher intends to make sense of the meanings others have about the world and rather than starting with a theory, as in post-positivism, researchers generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning (Creswell, 2009). More specifically, Henning (2004: 21) states that this research focuses "on the understanding of individual participants' experience and perceptions of their professional roles as experienced in their day-to-day working environment, from the perspective of their unique contexts and backgrounds." Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2010: 61) view the search for "*verstehen*" (understanding) of the social researcher as being in direct opposition to the natural sciences' focus on "*erklaren*" (explaining).

The advocacy and participatory worldviews, also referred to as the critical social paradigm, arose in opposition to the structural laws and theories imposed by the post-positivist assumptions, which did not fit marginalised individuals in our society or issues of social justice that needed to be addressed. Neither did the constructivist stance go far enough in advocating for action to help marginalised people. This particular paradigm holds that research inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda, and should focus on the needs of groups and individuals in our society that may be marginalised (Creswell 2009). Crotty (1998: 112) is of the opinion that it is not "research that seeks merely to understand ... [it is] a research that challenges ... that [takes up a view] of conflict and oppression ... that seeks to bring about change". Therefore, the research contains an action agenda for reform that may change the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals work or live, and the researcher's life. This paradigm is typically linked with qualitative research, but it can be the foundation for quantitative research as well.

Lastly, the pragmatic worldview or paradigm “arose out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism)” (Creswell 2009: 10). According to Patton (1990), pragmatism is concerned with applications, what works, and solutions to problems. Instead of focusing on methods, researchers emphasise the importance of the research problem in social science research and use all approaches available to understand the problem. Creswell (2009) argues that pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This applies to mixed methods research in that researchers draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions in their research to provide the best understanding of a research problem. Individual researchers have the freedom to choose which methods, techniques and procedures of research best meet their needs and purposes. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003: 705) support this argument by suggesting that pragmatism is the most suitable worldview that provides a foundation for mixed methods research. Pragmatists agree that research always occurs in social, historical, political and other contexts. Creswell (2009: 11) states that “for the mixed methods researcher, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions as well as different forms of data collection and analysis.”

This particular study is located in a pragmatic paradigm, framework or worldview, because the emphasis of this study is the research problem, the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools, and not the research methods. The researcher will use both quantitative and qualitative methods, a mixed methods approach, to collect information in order to best describe and understand the research problem.

4.5 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

In this section the different types of research designs and the advantages and disadvantages of each one will be discussed briefly. According to Creswell (2009: 3), research designs are “plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis”. Mouton (2001: 55) defines a research design as “a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research”. The decision on which design should be used is influenced by the worldview assumptions of the researcher; procedures of inquiry; and specific methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. The choice of a research design is also based on the nature of the research problem, the researcher’s personal experiences and the audiences for the study (Creswell 2009). Mouton (2001) suggests that the research design the researcher chooses should be the design that will best answer the research question.

4.5.1 Possible research designs

Research designs are strategies that can be used to address research questions. Mouton (2000) uses the term “design type” when he talks about the way in which the research is conceived and executed, and how findings are eventually put together. Henning (2004) refers to this as the epistemological and therefore the methodological home of the study. Creswell (2009: 12-14) identifies three types of research designs, namely quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. Newman and Benz (1998) view quantitative and qualitative approaches as different ends on a continuum and not polar opposites. Mixed methods research resides in the middle of this continuum, because it incorporates elements of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006; Niglas 2009; Palak & Walls 2009). Mixed methods research is often also referred to as multi-method research (Blaxter *et al.* 2010: 85).

4.5.1.1 Quantitative research design

Quantitative research is empirical research where the data are in the form of numbers (Punch 2005: 3). Quantitative research tends to involve relatively large-scale and representative sets of data, and is often presented or perceived as being about the gathering of facts (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight 2010) which can be quantified and expressed in numbers. Quantitative research is a form of conclusive research involving large representative samples and fairly structured data-collection procedures. A primary role of quantitative research is to test hypotheses (Struwig & Stead 2001).

The most common methods used to conduct quantitative research are exploratory, descriptive, experimental and quasi-experimental. Neuman (2000: 510) defines exploratory research as “research into an area that has not been studied and in which a researcher wants to develop initial ideas and a more focused research question.” Struwig and Stead (2001: 7) describe the major purpose of exploratory research as “the development and clarification of ideas and the formulation of questions and hypotheses for more precise investigation later.” During the research stage a great amount of information is gathered from a small sample.

Descriptive research attempts to describe something completely and accurately, as in the case of this study, the state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. Struwig and Stead (2001) identify two descriptive research methods, namely case studies and the statistical method. Case studies involve a small number of

persons and attempt to arrive at a complete description and understanding of the constructs that are being studied. The statistical method differs from the case study with regard to the number of cases studied and how thoroughly each case is studied. This method examines a few variables in a large number of cases. The statistical method focuses on measures of central tendency, percentages, measures of distribution and other more sophisticated statistical procedures. The statistical method will provide a better overall picture, whereas a case study will deliver more detailed insights into the research problem (Struwig & Stead 2001: 158).

4.5.1.2 *Qualitative research design*

Qualitative research is empirical research where the data are not in the form of numbers (Punch 2005: 3). Henning (2004: 3) explains that “in qualitative research we want to find out not only *what* happens but also *how* it happens and, importantly, *why* it happens the way it does”. Babbie (1995: 112) describes qualitative research design as involving a series of decisions regarding the topic, the population, the research methods and the purpose. One of the differences between qualitative and quantitative research can be found in the search for understanding and the depth of inquiry which qualitative research allows (Henning 2004: 4). In qualitative research the focus is not on the quantity of understanding, but rather on the depth of the understanding. She explains that researchers want to understand and explain the phenomena they are studying by using the evidence from the data and from the literature, and therefore this understanding should not be placed within the boundaries of a quantitative instrument which will limit the data (Henning 2004: 4).

Qualitative research can be conducted by adopting any of the following strategies: ethnography, grounded theory, discourse analysis, case studies, phenomenological research and narrative research (Creswell 2009; Henning 2004; Struwig & Stead 2001). “Ethnography is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher studies an intact cultural group in a natural setting over an extended period of time by collecting, primarily, observational and interview data” (Creswell 2009: 13). Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe grounded theory as a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher develops a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants. During this process multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information are used. Case studies are a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher explores in depth a programme, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. The cases are restricted by time and activity, and researchers use a variety of data-collection procedures over a prolonged period of time (Stake 1995). Creswell (2009: 13) describes phenomenological

research as a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher identifies the fundamental nature of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by participants. According to him, this research strategy studies a small number of subjects through extensive and sustained engagement to develop patterns and relationships of meaning. According to Struwig and Stead (2001: 14) discourse analysis is used “to show how certain discourses (ways of talking and behaving) can be employed to achieve certain effects in specified contexts”. Like ethnography, discourse analysis tries to discover patterns of communication that have functional relevance for people. Narrative research (Creswell 2009: 13) is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher studies the lives of individuals and asks one or more individuals to provide stories about their lives. The researcher often recasts this information into a narrative chronology.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 395) explain how qualitative studies cater for the improvement of educational practice: “Qualitative research describes and analyses people’s individual and collective social actions beliefs, thoughts, and perceptions. The researcher interprets phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them”. Interviews, observations, documents and artefacts and recording of naturally occurring interaction are, according to Henning (2004), thought of as qualitative techniques. However, interviews may also be structured and analysed in a quantitative manner.

4.5.1.3 Mixed methods research design

In this study the researcher employed a fixed mixed methods design, and therefore this method will be discussed in detail in the following section.

Mixed methods research is an approach to inquiry that combines both quantitative and qualitative strands. A strand can be described as a component of a study that includes the basic process of conducting quantitative or qualitative research, namely posing a question, collecting data, analysing data and interpreting results based on the data (Teddle & Tashakkori 2009). Mixed methods research includes at least one quantitative strand and one qualitative strand. The research should strategically combine qualitative and quantitative methods, approaches, and concepts in a way that produces complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007). Greene *et al.* (1989) are of the opinion that the principle of mixed methods research is not limited to triangulation, but the “complementary strengths component of the principle means data should be collected that will provide all of the information that is potentially relevant to the purpose(s) of the study” (Greene *et al.* 1989: 260). These major purposes have been

identified as triangulation, expansion, complementarity, development and initiation. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003: 709) argue that “One of the main aims of mixed methods research is to contribute to inductive inference, the process of creating meaningful and consistent explanations, meanings, conceptual frameworks, and/or theories”. For the purpose of this study the researcher selected a mixed methods approach, combining both traditional surveys (quantitative data) and interviews (qualitative data). Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) describe this approach as more than simply collecting and analysing both kinds of data:

Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5).

Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner's (2007) definition of mixed methods research supports that of Creswell and Plano Clark:

Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson *et al.* 2007: 123).

Greene (2007) provides a definition of mixed methods that conceptualises this form of inquiry differently as a way of looking at the social world

that actively invites us to participate in dialogue about multiple ways of seeing and hearing, multiple ways of making sense of the social world, and multiple standpoints on what is important and to be valued and cherished (Greene 2007: 20).

In the case of this study, the researcher identified the need to have more than one data source to answer the research question and the data gathered from the qualitative interviews would enhance and elaborate on the initial data gathered by means of quantitative questionnaires. Another reason for the decision to use a mixed methods research design was that the second database would explain and also corroborate the findings generated by the first database, which would result in enhancing the integrity and therefore the credibility of the findings (Bryman 2006; Greene, Caracelli & Graham 1998). This decision ties in with

Creswell and Plano Clark's (2011) view that the following research problems are suited for mixed methods:

those in which one data source may be insufficient, results need to be explained, exploratory findings need to be generalised, a second method is needed to enhance a primary method, a theoretical stance needs to be employed and an overall research objective can be best addressed with multiple phase, or projects (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011: 8).

Other advantages of a mixed methods approach are:

- it provides more evidence for studying a research problem than either quantitative or qualitative research alone and researchers are not restricted to only using the types of data collection typically associated with quantitative research or qualitative research;
- mixed methods research also helps to answer questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative approaches alone;
- mixed methods provide a bridge across the sometimes oppositional divide between quantitative and qualitative researchers;
- mixed methods research encourages the use of multiple worldviews, or paradigms, rather than the typical association of certain paradigms with quantitative research and others for qualitative research;
- mixed methods research is practical in the sense that the researcher is free to use all methods possible to address a research problem. It is also practical because individuals tend to solve problems using both statistical and narrative approaches, combine inductive and deductive thinking, and employ skills in observing people as well as recording behavior (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011: 12 – 13).

In this study the researcher employed a fixed mixed methods design, as the use of quantitative and qualitative methods has been predetermined and planned at the start of the research process, and the procedures were implemented as planned (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). Both data-collection instruments, the questionnaire and interview schedule, were developed before the process of collecting the data started. The study utilised a quantitative priority (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011), which means that a greater emphasis was placed on the quantitative method such as questionnaires and the interviews as qualitative method were used in a secondary role.

The concurrent triangulation strategy (Creswell 2009; Christ 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009) was decided upon as the most appropriate for this FAL study for several reasons. Firstly, the term ‘concurrent’ (Creswell 2009: 213) indicates that “the researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently and then compares the two databases to determine if there is convergence, differences or some combination.” Separate quantitative and qualitative methods are used in an attempt to offset the weaknesses inherent within one method with the strengths of the other, or to add the strength of one to the strength of the other method. Usually the weight of the two methods is equal, but often priority may be given to one or the other. In this case, it was the quantitative method that was given the most weight, because of the complete and accurate description the data generated. The qualitative data, consisting of the purposively randomly selected participants’ responses to semi-structured interview questions, were used primarily for purposes of confirmation, disconfirmation, cross-validation or corroboration (Greene *et al.* 1989; Creswell & Plano Clark 2011), and triangulation (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009; Bryman 2006). The two data strands were bound by the research question, data sources, locations, time and participants (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). The data from both strands were collected during the same phase of the research study, although the quantitative data (questionnaire) had been collected before the qualitative interviews were conducted because of time constraints. The mixing during this approach, usually found in the interpretation or discussion section, is to actually merge the data (i.e. transform one type of data to the other type of data so that they can easily be compared) or, as in the case of this study, integrate or compare the results of two databases side by side in a discussion. According to Creswell,

[t]his side-by-side integration is often seen in published mixed methods studies in which a discussion section first provides quantitative statistical results followed by qualitative quotes that support or disconfirm the quantitative results (Creswell 2009: 213).

Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), however, warn against the limitations of this model. It requires great effort and expertise to adequately study a phenomenon with two separate methods. Using data of different forms might complicate comparing the results of two analyses. The researcher may also be uncertain how to resolve discrepancies that arise in comparing the results, although procedures are emerging in the literature, such as “conducting additional data collection to resolve the discrepancy, revisiting the original database, gaining new insight from the disparity of the data, or developing a new project that addresses the discrepancy” (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007: 222).

4.6 THE DATA-COLLECTION PROCESS

McKay (2006) identifies two major sources of data that can be gathered while conducting research, namely secondary and primary data. When using secondary data, the researcher examines what others have discovered about a particular topic. These data are reported in the Literature Study section (Chapter 3) of this thesis. The literature study covers a vast number of aspects of FAL teaching, e.g. South African language policies, FAL curriculum development, FAL teaching methodologies and approaches, the use of LTSM in the FAL classroom and the FAL teacher's various kinds of knowledge and role in the classroom. The aim of this literature study is to provide insight into what is already known about FAL teaching. From the literature study it was evident that there is still a great need for information about the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL, especially in primary schools in the Western Cape.

When primary data are used, the researcher gathers original data to answer a particular research question. McDonough and McDonough (1997: 37) note when researchers gather first-hand data, "the outcome is knowledge nobody had before". The mixed methods approach adopted in this study aimed to investigate teacher understanding of Afrikaans FAL and their classroom practice in this regard. Like in a similar study conducted by Mangubhai *et al.* (2004), this research was used to source FAL teachers' knowledge of language policies and methods and how these different kinds of knowledge influence the teachers' choice of methods and classroom practice. Mangubhai *et al.* (2004) state that

what teachers do in classrooms is guided by the practical knowledge that they have built up largely through experience in classrooms. Because practical knowledge is a product of a natural tendency in human beings to try to make sense of the contexts in which they work and live and is used to build framework for guiding action therein, it can also take on the form of practical theory (2004: 293).

Although, according to Sanders and McCutcheon (1986: 57), practical theories cannot be regarded as theories in the scientific sense, because they are not "conceptually precise, specifically explicated, and able to withstand rigorous logical tests", practical theories do allow teachers to describe, make sense of, and provide reasonable explanations for events in their classrooms. The two methods that were selected to assist the Afrikaans FAL teachers in describing and explaining their practical theories of FAL are: (a) quantitative questionnaires and (b) qualitative semi-structured interviews.

The following aspects will be addressed in the next section: data collection design, sampling, the data-collection instruments that have been implemented, namely the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, and the validity and reliability of the two instruments.

4.6.1 Data-collection design

According to Teddlie and Yu (2007), the purpose of data collection in a mixed methods study is to develop answers to the research questions, yet they admit that there is no widely accepted typology of mixed methods sampling strategies. For the purpose of this study, the convergent design (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011: 180 – 185) of data collection was selected. In the convergent design the data collection involves collecting both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently, analysing the data separately, and then merging the two databases. The two types of data are usually valued equally, but variants, where there is a quantitative or qualitative priority, are also used. In a convergent study there are two options for selecting participants in the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study: the samples can include different individuals or the same individuals. Because the purpose of this study is to use the data from the different strands to corroborate, directly compare and relate two sets of findings about the topic, the same participants were used in both the quantitative and qualitative samples. The two samples had different sizes, with the size of the quantitative sample much larger than the qualitative sample, which helped the researcher obtain an in-depth qualitative exploration and a rigorous quantitative examination of the topic. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 184) state, the “quantitative data collection aims toward making generalisations to a population while qualitative data collection seeks to develop an in-depth understanding from a few people.” Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) and Teddlie and Yu (2007) note that merging the two databases works best if the researcher designs the study by asking parallel questions in both the qualitative and the quantitative data collection. By parallel questions they mean “that the same concepts need to be addressed in both the qualitative and quantitative data collection so that the two databases can be compared and merged” (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011: 184). In the case of this study, two independent data sets were collected, although the quantitative data (questionnaire) were collected before the qualitative data (interviews) simply for logistical reasons.

4.6.2 Sampling

It is impractical and almost impossible to consult all the people (the population), in this case all the Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grades 4 – 6 in urban Western Cape schools, therefore a sample of these teachers was selected to participate in the study. As the mixed methods

research design was chosen for this study, both quantitative and qualitative data had to be collected. Two different sampling strategies were employed in order to select the participants in the two strands (quantitative and qualitative) of this study.

McKay (2006: 36) states that “In designing a survey, the primary questions the researcher needs to address are: What is the purpose of the survey and who will take the survey?” Babbie (1995: 193) mentions that it is appropriate to select a sample on the basis of the researcher’s judgement about which ones will be competent to answer. According to Henning (2004), the selecting of qualitative research participants (sampling) is:

not the setting as in ethnographic research; the main motivation is the *people*. She needs to get to people who can travel with her on the journey towards more knowledge about the topic (Henning 2004: 71).

In order to achieve the research objectives, the sample had to be chosen with great caution. For the quantitative strand of this study the population was regarded as all the teachers teaching Afrikaans as FAL in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. The sampling frame (a list of all the sampling units in the population) (Struwig & Stead 2001) was changed to a list of all the urban primary schools in the Western Cape that offer Afrikaans FAL to make it more manageable. This list was obtained from the WCED. As this sampling frame consisted of more than 560 schools, the researcher decided to only select the schools on the list from the WCED that CPUT uses as practice teaching schools, which reduced the number of schools to 95. The Afrikaans FAL teachers at these schools would then form the sampling unit (those elements about which information is sought) (Struwig & Stead 2001). The sampling technique that was implemented was convenience sampling, which resides under non-probability sampling techniques. In non-probability sampling the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown. Because the researcher relies heavily on personal judgement, the selection of sampling units is arbitrary and a sample of convenience is chosen purely on the basis of availability (Struwig & Stead 2001: 111). McKay (2006) acknowledges that it is sometimes difficult to get a true random sample, and then researchers can use a sample of convenience, that is, researchers use participants whom they are able to get access to. She stresses that when a sample of convenience is used, it is important to try to select a group that is in some way representative of the larger population. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 174) state that non-probabilistic sampling involves selecting “individuals who are available and are willing to be studied”. Respondents are selected because they are accessible and articulate. In the case of this study, the lines of communication with the schools had already been established, and the schools and teachers were easily accessible. The CPUT student group leaders were able to deliver the

documentation (information letters and letters of consent to the principals, letters of consent to the teachers, and questionnaires) to the schools and to collect the completed consent forms and questionnaires and return them to the researcher. Three questionnaires were sent to each of the schools, in total 285 questionnaires.

Qualitative research focuses primarily on the depth or richness of the data and therefore qualitative researchers generally select samples purposefully rather than randomly, although randomisation is not excluded as a qualitative sampling technique (Struwig & Stead 2001). Barbour (2008: 157) supports the argument for purposive sampling: "Rather than defensively insisting on convenience sampling, for example, qualitative researchers might use the detailed information about respondents afforded by a survey in order to purposively sample interviewees". This kind of sampling was done by Cawley (in Barbour 2008: 157) when she used information for respondents who had given permission for the researcher (on the completed questionnaires) to re-contact them to arrange for one-to-one interviews. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 173) describe purposeful sampling as the researcher's intentional selection of participants "who have experienced the central phenomenon or the key concept being explored in the study." Teddlie and Yu (2007: 77) define purposive sampling as "selecting units (e.g. individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study's questions." Purposive sampling leads to greater depth of information from a smaller number of carefully selected cases. The participants display certain characteristics and have important information that the researcher is interested in (Silverman 2011: 388); in this case all participants are Afrikaans FAL teachers and have some knowledge and experience of teaching Afrikaans as a FAL, and therefore form a homogeneous sample group. For the qualitative strand of the study the researcher made use of a random purposive (purposeful) sampling procedure (Teddlie & Yu 2007; Creswell 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark 2011) to select schools and teachers to participate in the qualitative strand (interviews) of this study, as was done by Cawley (in Barbour 2008: 157).

The sampling was done randomly from those schools and teachers who returned the completed questionnaires and indicated that they were willing to participate in the interviews. The names of all the schools that indicated on the questionnaires that they would be willing to be part of the interviewing process were placed in a box and 9 schools were randomly drawn from the box. The teachers from these schools who had completed the questionnaires were contacted telephonically to arrange the interviews at a time convenient to them. Some of the teachers from three of the schools indicated that they were no longer prepared to participate in the interviews and the researcher then drew the names of another three

schools from the box and contacted those teachers to arrange the interviews. Eventually semi-structured group interviews were conducted with 17 Afrikaans FAL teachers at the 9 schools.

4.6.3 Quantitative questionnaires

Surveys are based on the desire to collect information, usually by questionnaire, about a well-defined population. Surveys and questionnaires are not synonymous. A survey is a general methodology for gathering, describing and explaining information from samples to construct a quantitative description of a population. Survey research is one of three techniques for collecting primary data – the other two are direct measurement and observation. According to McKay (2006: 17), a controlled and structured survey research method “can use both statistical and qualitative analysis.” Brown (in McKay 2006: 35) is of the opinion that:

language surveys are any studies that gather data on the characteristics and views of informants about the nature of language or language learning through the use of oral interviews or written questionnaires.

Questionnaires refer to a specific tool, also known as an instrument, for gathering information directly by asking people questions and using the responses as data for analysis. Questionnaires are also known as scales (Slattery *et al.* 2011), when their assessment creates a quantified score. Questionnaires consist of a series of questions and can be administered in a number of different ways, e.g. personally with an interviewer, conducted over the telephone, by mail, and increasingly be made available online. The latter two are also referred to as self-administered questionnaires. The questions address specific concepts of interest or items deemed worthy of investigation (Slattery *et al.* 2011; Czaja & Blair 1996).

According to Czaja and Blair (1996: 54), a good questionnaire complies with the following requirements: “it is a valid measure of the factors of interest; it convinces respondents to cooperate; and it elicits acceptably accurate information”.

4.6.3.1 Motivation for the use of questionnaires

Dörnyei (2003) identifies three types of information that can be provided by questionnaires when doing research in second language classrooms, namely factual information about the

characteristics of individual teachers and learners e.g. their age, gender, language background, proficiency level, etc.; behavioural information about what students or teachers do in terms of their language teaching and learning; and attitudinal information about the teachers' and learners' opinions, beliefs or interests. Wisker (2008: 187) concurs with this view when she explains that questionnaires are often used to gather information about "facts, attitudes, behaviours, activities and responses to events." Previous studies done by Pajares (1992), Spodek (1987) and Christ and Makarani (2009) generated large amounts of descriptive statistics on teachers' attitudes towards teaching English and teachers' conceptions of curriculum and instruction from the responses of the teachers to questionnaires. Questionnaires provide a very efficient means for researchers to gather a good deal of information in a short time with little cost.

In order to answer the research question, the researcher had to gather data about the Afrikaans FAL teachers' experience, training, knowledge and understanding of language policies, curriculum planning and delivery, teaching methodologies and learning and teaching materials (LTSM) used in their classrooms. As this study was not supported by any outside funding, cost was also a factor and the necessary information could be gathered in a cost-effective manner by means of questionnaires.

4.6.3.2 *The questionnaire design*

Czaja and Blair (1996) are of the opinion that the types of information we need to collect from respondents and the best way to elicit that information are two key decisions that the researcher must make before embarking on designing the questionnaire. In order to obtain accurate information, it is critical to use a well-constructed instrument. As in this instance, the appearance of e-mail and other self-administered surveys is of great importance. An instrument that is closely spaced, with tiny print or long questions will not be inviting to many respondents. Respondents can also be quickly put off by long or complex instructions for answering questions, so instructions should be clear and to the point (Struwig & Stead 2001; Czaja & Blair 1998; Slattery *et al.* 2011). The following elements of questionnaire design will be discussed in the sections to follow: question structure, order of questions, piloting, and recognising biases

4.6.3.2.1 Question structure

The researcher has to decide whether to ask open-ended or closed-ended questions, or both. In the first category of questions the respondents answer in their own words. In the

case of closed-ended questions respondents may answer either yes or no or choose from a list of provided responses. As mentioned earlier, questionnaires lend themselves to both types of questions. In research where the focus is more on numbers and weights to prove a hypothesis or test a theory, (deductive) closed-ended questions will be asked, whereas research focusing on developing theory or describing phenomena (inductive) will include more open-ended questions (Slattery *et al.* 2011; McKay 2006; Czaja & Blair 1996). Because a mixed methods research design was adopted for this study, the questionnaire that was used as the data-collection instrument for the quantitative strand of this study was comprised mainly of closed-ended questions, although some open-ended questions were included where more elaborate explanations were needed from respondents to fill the gaps. The researcher attempted to gather as much information as possible on the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL and this was achieved by asking mostly closed-ended questions. The in-depth and rich data was gathered through semi-structured focus group interviews with Afrikaans FAL teachers.

Both open and closed questions need to use simple, concrete and non-confusing language. Sentences should be complete and two-part questions should be avoided (example: "Does your school have a language policy and is it aligned to the WCED's Language Transformation Plan?"). Questionnaire questions must function without supplementary explanation. This aspect is even more important in self-administered instruments, as there will be nobody to explain the meaning of the questions to the respondent. Slattery *et al.* (2011) suggest that if the questionnaire is self-administered, the number of open-ended question should be kept to a minimum. Simple and clear language will make the respondent's task easier and thus minimise the reasons for not responding (Czaja & Blair 1996). When compiling questions, researchers must carefully consider what they want respondents to do when posing tasks such as counting or estimating.

The closed questions in the questionnaire have two parts: the statement of the question and the response categories. The questions are stated as directly as possible and the response required is the answer in terms of one, and typically only one, of the answer choices provided. Questions can be categorised by type of response, which include "nominal, ordinal or continuous" (Slattery *et al.* 2011: 833). An example of a nominal question is: "What is the home language of the majority of learners at the school?" Ordinal questions take the form of rating or ranking an item, e.g. "Rate your proficiency in Afrikaans from 1 – 5". Lastly, continuous variable questions usually produce discrete data. An example of such a question would be: "How many language teaching journals do you receive?" Struwig and Stead (2001: 92 - 94) discuss more types of questions, namely multiple-choice questions, dichotomous

questions, scaled-response questions and ranking questions. Multiple-choice questions offer specific alternatives from which the respondent must choose one or more. This type of question simplifies the recording, tabulation and editing process considerably. Dichotomous questions allow for responses that indicate an explicit division, e.g. “yes” or “no”. The respondents are offered a choice between two options only. Scaled-response questions are often used to gather data on attitudes and perceptions. Two examples are the Likert-type scale and the semantic differential scale. Ranking questions require the respondent to rank a list of items from most to least important starting with 1 = most important. The questionnaire for this study included questions of all the above-mentioned types of questions, except the semantic differential scale (Ploughwright 2011: 122-124).

4.6.3.2.2 Order of questions

One objective of designing a questionnaire is to convince potential respondents that the study is important enough for them to devote their personal time and effort to it. The researcher wants them to take the study seriously and so provide complete and accurate responses; therefore the way the questionnaire is introduced is of great importance. Questionnaires are typically organised into sections that follow the logic of the sampling plan, the data-collection procedure, and question administration (Czaja & Blair 1996). Most questionnaires start with an introduction and directions, which should be simple and clear. Enough information should be provided about the survey to induce the respondents' cooperation. The researcher followed the advice from Czaja and Blair (1996: 79) and Dillman (1978) and attached a letter of consent (see Appendices C & D) to each questionnaire in which the following information was provided:

- What the study is about;
- Who is conducting it;
- Why the study is important;
- What will be done with the study results;
- Promise of confidentiality;
- Promise of anonymity.

The first questions should be relevant to the central topic, easy to answer, interesting, applicable to and answerable by most respondents and in closed format (Czaja & Blair 1996: 84 – 85). The first two sections of the questionnaire (see Appendix F) used in this study

addressed questions about the school and learner profile, which would be easy for all respondents to answer.

In addition to beginning with the easier questions, there should be an internal logic and a smooth progression, or flow, through the questionnaire. If some questions depend on prior responses, the order of these items is dictated by that logic. The respondent would also find it useful if he/she could sense the flow, or natural progression, of the instrument (Blaxter *et al.* 2010; Struwig & Stead 2001; Czaja & Blair 1996; Slattery *et al.* 2011). Researchers should avoid having questions on a particular topic scattered through the questionnaire; therefore the questions in this particular questionnaire were grouped into the following sections: school profile, learner profile and proficiency, teacher profile, national and regional language policy issues, school language policy, instructional timetabling, curriculum planning and delivery, teaching methodology, and availability and use of learning support material.

4.6.3.2.3 Bias

Slattery *et al.* (2011: 835) argue that bias can be introduced either by the designers of a survey or by the respondents. According to them, bias can emerge in both questions and questionnaire design. Bias in question design can be broken down into problems with wording, incomplete data, use of faulty scales, leading questions and inconsistency, whereas formatting, length or questionnaires and flawed structure are types of questionnaire design bias. Researchers should not influence the respondents' answers in any way. Therefore, while developing the questions, they must constantly ask themselves whether they have introduced bias into the data-gathering process (Czaja & Blair 1996). Questions that are biased in terms of race, gender, religion, or nationality should not be used.

The second source of bias is respondents (Slattery *et al.* 2011). Respondents need to have the cognitive ability to read, interpret and answer questions. Their subconscious and conscious tendencies and cultural differences also produce bias.

Examples of subconscious effects include avoiding extreme answers and responding in a generally affirmative way, especially when asked about satisfaction. Conscious forms of bias include "faking good," when a subject wishes to be seen in a positive light, and "faking bad," when it is assumed reporting a worse situation is to the benefit of the subject. Often these forms of bias arise surrounding socially unacceptable circumstances (e.g. Sexually transmitted diseases or smoking during pregnancy). Anonymity helps to decrease these types of bias (Slattery *et al.* 2011: 835).

Bias due to culture can occur both from interpretation of questions as well as in the responses. The researcher should take this bias into account if a large proportion of a sample is expected to be of a similar culture, which may deal with certain topics differently from others within the sample. Questions should be made understandable to all groups.

4.6.3.2.4 Piloting

Slattery *et al.* (2011: 833 - 834) state that the pilot testing of a new instrument has two main functions, namely “discovering flaws within the instrument and also examining the reliability and validity of the questionnaire”. Czaja and Blair (1996) are of the opinion that the piloting process will increase the value of the survey. Ideally, pilot testing is performed on a separate group from the sample group. There can be different phases to the piloting process, where the early phases are more informal and often consist of giving the instruments to other professionals within the field. The advantage to this is that problems with question design are discovered early. The researcher sent the questionnaire for this study to two colleagues who are knowledgeable about the field of study, namely first additional language teaching, but who also have sufficient experience in the field of research. On their advice, the order of the sections was changed and two open-ended questions were changed to closed-ended questions. The researcher also had to change the wording of two questions which were regarded as ambiguous and unclear.

The later phases of pilot testing are usually implemented in a manner closer to the way that the questionnaire will eventually be administered and with subjects closer to the intended sample. This stage can focus on the clarity of the questions, the design and style of the way you have presented the questions. The questionnaire was piloted by three Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grade 4, Grade 5 and Grade 6 classes at Western Cape urban primary schools. Although two of the three teachers felt that the questionnaire might be a bit long, they were satisfied with the level of questioning and the different aspects of FAL teaching that had been covered by the questionnaire. They also found the level of the language appropriate, as all the respondents would be Afrikaans teachers. After some consideration and consultation with the colleagues who had done the first phase of the piloting, the researcher decided to leave the questionnaire unchanged.

4.6.3.3 Completion of the questionnaires

Surveys can be administered in many different ways. Implementation can take place personally with an interviewer, be mailed, be conducted over the telephone, or be made

available online. In this case the questionnaires were personally delivered to each principal by CPUT student group leaders who did their teaching practice at the particular school during July/August 2011.

Letters of consent (see Appendices C & D) and questionnaires were delivered to all the WCED urban primary schools that offer Afrikaans as FAL and are CPUT practice teaching schools, inviting them to take part in the research. Included was a letter to the principals in which the researcher introduced herself, informing them of the purpose of the study and asking their permission to conduct the research in their schools. The principals had to complete the attached consent form (see Appendix C) to conduct research in their schools, which had to be returned, with the completed questionnaires, by a specified date (31 August 2011). The student group leaders would collect the completed forms and questionnaires from the principals and return them to the researcher. Attached to each questionnaire was a letter to the FAL teacher (see Appendix D), with the same information as in the letter to the principal and a request to complete the questionnaire. Teachers were also assured of the confidentiality of their responses as well as their anonymity. Each participating teacher also had to complete a consent form (see Appendix D) in which they indicated their willingness to participate in this research project voluntarily. Two to three teachers from each school who teach Afrikaans First Additional Language to Grades 4 – 6 learners were included in the research.

In the case of this study the questionnaires were self-administered. The respondents (teachers) had to do four things: interpret the questions, recall relevant information, decide on an answer, and answer the question by choosing the correct option from the possibilities provided or writing their own answer (Czaja & Blair 1996: 53). In order to perform the above actions, the respondents had to understand the questions as the researcher intended, have the necessary information, and had to be able and willing to provide an answer in the form the question requires. The sample for completing the questionnaires was a homogeneous group. All the respondents in this study were Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grades 4 – 6, therefore they should have been able to understand the questions and have the necessary information. In case some of the respondents did not feel comfortable in completing the questionnaire in Afrikaans, each school also received two English questionnaires, which would eliminate the possibility that the questions might be misunderstood or misinterpreted. Only teachers who were willing to participate voluntarily in the research were asked to complete the questionnaires.

4.6.4 Interviews

Henning (2000: 5) lists three main categories of data collection in qualitative research, namely observation, artifact and document studies, and interviewing. Interviews involve questioning or discussing issues with people. Blaxter *et al.* (2010) argue that the interview is a very useful technique for collecting data which would most likely not be accessible using techniques such as observation or questionnaires. Byrne (2004: 182) agrees with this argument when she states that “qualitative interviewing is particularly useful as a research method for accessing individuals’ attitudes and values – things that cannot necessarily be observed or accommodated in a formal questionnaire”. Interviews involve persuasion of interviewees to participate and then, on some level, social interaction between them and interviewers. For the purpose of this study, the researcher decided to implement the research interview to gather the data for the qualitative strand of the mixed methods approach that had been chosen.

Plowright (2011) and Kvale and Brinkman (2009) explain that spoken questions can be posed face-to-face in one-to-one interviews, group interviews and focus groups, or the interviews can be conducted over the telephone or by means of video-conferencing. In this study face-to-face group interviews were conducted, which allowed the researcher to be personally present during the data-collection process as well as have some control over the conditions under which the questions were asked.

Turner (2010), Henning (2004), Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) differentiate between structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Structured interviews use a questionnaire format with closed questions and are frequently used to generate quantitative rather than qualitative data. During semi-structured, in-depth interviews predetermined, open, direct, verbal questions are used to evoke detailed narratives and stories. As Byrne explains:

open-ended and flexible questions are likely to get a more considered response than closed questions and therefore provide better access to interviewees’ views, interpretation of events, understandings, experiences and opinions ... (qualitative interviewing) when done well is able to achieve a level of depth and complexity that is not available to other, particularly survey-based, approaches (Byrne 2004: 182).

Unstructured interviews can be described as guided conversations during which questions emerge as the researcher learns about the setting.

The interview as research method provides data on people's thoughts in a relatively short space of time and is a useful tool in finding answers to the research problem. In order to provide some structure to an open and flexible interview study, Kvale (1996: 88) suggests the following seven stages to an interview investigation.

1. Thematising: During this stage the researcher explains the purpose and describes the topic of the study.
2. Designing: This stage covers the design of the way the intended knowledge will be obtained.
3. Interviewing: Refers to the conducting of the interviews using an interview guide.
4. Transcribing: During this stage the recorded oral speech is transcribed to a written script to be analysed.
5. Analysing: Deciding on and using an appropriate method, based on the purpose of the study.
6. Verifying: Determine the generalisability, reliability and validity of the interview findings.
7. Reporting: Communicate the findings of the study in a readable product.

The first two stages, thematising and designing, are generic to any investigation, but the other five provide a framework for the purposeful structuring of the whole interview process.

4.6.4.1 Motivation for the use of semi-structured interviews

The researcher's decision to use this interview approach was influenced by a number of considerations. First, this method has a long and successful history in research on teachers' thinking. The semi-structured interview allows teachers the chance and time to describe in detail the bases of their approaches to teaching, without the constraints of an inflexible set of questions. An important consideration for using this approach is the prominence that is given to the voice of the teacher rather than that of the researcher (Elbaz 1991), which assists in ensuring reliability of accounts of practice.

Second, the semi-structured interview creates a climate conducive to teacher reflection and disclosure of details of their practical theories; Mangubhai *et al.* (2004) describe the strength of these in-depth interviews as:

Teacher engagement in these introspective processes can be encouraged by interviewers being empathic, supportive and non-evaluative, asking open-ended

questions, seeking clarification and extension of the teachers' remarks and using the language of the teachers where possible (Mangubhai *et al.* 2004: 294).

In this study, the role of the interviewer was defined to include these features.

Third, a semi-structured approach provides flexibility to allow unique features of the teacher's practical theory of FAL teaching to come to the fore and would help a teacher to articulate the bases for his/her teaching, or reveal important aspects of his/her practical theories (Berg 1995).

Semi-structured interviews also allow the researcher to design predetermined questions as the interview guide, which will result in each interviewee responding to the same questions, although the participants' responses and the process are still flexible (McMillan & Schumacher 2001; Struwig & Stead 2001). Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) and McNamara (2009) describe two of the advantages of the use of an interview guide as follows: although the interview guide approach is more structured than the informal conversational interview, there is still quite a bit of flexibility in its composition, and it ensures that the same general areas of information are collected from each interviewee.

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) argue that good interview questions should contribute to knowledge production and promote a good interview interaction. According to Whiting (2008: 37), the good use of interview questions will "maintain interaction and lead to the generation of knowledge. To gain more insight into the interviewee's experiences, probing questions are frequently used". These probing questions will provide the researcher with more detail, clarification and description (Roulston 2010:15). When the researcher asks probing questions, it will be an indication to the interviewee that the researcher wants longer and more detailed answers, and this will encourage the speaker to keep elaborating (Rubin & Rubin 1995). During this process the interviewer will be able to encourage informal discussion, while at the same time steering the conversation by consulting the prepared interview guide.

4.6.4.2 *Interview questions*

A major challenge in using semi-structured interviews in this study was deciding on the set of core questions to be used. Mangubhai *et al.* (2004) argue that the nature of the core questions is made difficult by differences of opinion about the scope and focus of teachers' practical knowledge and theories about FAL. There are also marked differences in the

number and nature of concepts used to capture knowledge and practical theories. “Some describe practical theories only in terms of beliefs or metaphors or a combination of these two, while others provide much more extensive accounts of practical knowledge” (Mangubhai *et al.* 2004: 295). They also established that teachers’ accounts of practical theories usually devote little attention to the links between the separate components of these theories. According to Snow (1975), theories consist of two features – the components themselves and the set of relationships among components. Components of teacher practical knowledge appear to be linked in quite significant ways. “Such linkages can denote causal and reciprocal effects among components, mutually beneficial or inhibitory associations, prerequisites for success in the use of a component, and contextual factors that impact on other components” (Snow 1975: 112).

The challenge for the researcher was to develop an interview schedule for conducting semi-structured interviews that would allow the interviewer to promote, in non-leading ways, teacher talk on as many constructs and links among constructs as would ensure full disclosure of the teacher’s practice and practical theory. King and Horrocks (2010: 36, 37) have identified six types of questions that the researcher can ask in a qualitative research interview, each seeking to elicit a particular kind of information from the participant:

- Background/demographic questions;
- Experience/behavior questions;
- Opinion/values questions;
- Feeling questions;
- Knowledge questions;
- Sensory questions.

Although they do not recommend that a certain number of each type is included in every interview guide, such a guideline will guide the researcher’s thoughts about the different kinds of responses he/she needs.

As the data collected through the semi-structured interviews were to be used to elaborate on and triangulate the data gathered through the questionnaires, the researcher decided to frame the interview questions within the themes addressed in the questionnaires, namely teacher profile, language policy issues, learner profile, curriculum planning and delivery, teaching methodology, and availability and use of learning and teaching support material (LTSM). The interview schedule for the semi-structured interviews included questions which

attempted to link the different components of the interviewees' practical and theoretical knowledge of FAL as well as questions covering the aspects suggested by King and Horrocks (2010). The following sixteen questions were put to all participants:

1. What formal training do you have in the methodology of first additional/second language teaching?
2. What form of in-service training does the WCED provide with regard to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL?
3. How would you describe your proficiency in Afrikaans?
4. What is your rationale for/opinion of teaching Afrikaans as a FAL?
5. To what extent do you/your school implement the national and provincial language policies with regard to the teaching of FAL?
6. Describe how you use the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL to inform and guide your teaching of Afrikaans.
7. To what extent do your learners achieve the outcomes of the RNCS?
8. What do you think are the reasons for your answer to question 7?
9. Describe the methodology/approach that you use when teaching FAL.
10. How much time per week is allocated to Afrikaans FAL?
11. What is your weekly programme for Afrikaans FAL teaching?
12. What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy most and why?
13. What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy least and why?
14. What texts and other teaching materials do you use when teaching Afrikaans as FAL?
15. Describe the major challenges you experience when teaching Afrikaans as FAL?
16. What assistance and support would help you to improve your teaching of Afrikaans FAL?

4.6.4.3 Conducting and transcribing of interviews

Henning (2004: 74) is convinced that the interview can progress only if the researcher has managed the logistics of the process well. The physical environment plays an important role in the successful outcome of the interview. Both interviewee and interviewer should be as comfortable as possible. King and Horrocks (2010) also refer to the importance of psychological comfort, because if the participants feel tense and unsettled, it may be reflected in unnatural and underdeveloped answers to the questions. The interviewer should sit close enough to hear the interviewees clearly and read non-verbal communication, but not so close that he/she intrudes on their personal space. They also recommend that the venue

for the interview should be private to avoid interruptions and relatively quiet to reduce the likelihood of problems with the audibility of the recording.

Henning (2004: 74) also lists some additional prerequisites: two audio recorders, a notebook, a suitable private venue with comfortable seating, spare batteries for the recorder and a signed consent form. Babbie (1995) emphasises that the interviewer must be completely familiar with the questions on the interview schedule and the topic to allow for a smooth and natural progression of the interview. In the case of this study, most of the interviews were conducted at the schools where the participants taught, and at a time in the afternoon which was most convenient to them. Only one participant wanted the interview to be conducted in the office of the researcher. All interviews were recorded on a digital data recorder with the permission of the interviewees.

Once everything is in place and the interview begins, there is a typical flow to the interview (Henning 2004). Henning (2004: 75) argues that interviews share the following steps in terms of their conversational development.

- The interviewer sets the scene by explaining the research topic and aim as well as the purpose of the specific interview.
- Next, the researcher may provide the interviewee with a copy of the interview questions and allow the participants some time to scan and reflect on it.
- The researcher now proceeds with the questions, and also explains probes and allows the interviewee time to think, if requested.
- As the interview progresses, the researcher may summarise some of the conversation as a means to help the interviewee to get a picture of what she has said, and to check whether the interviewer's understanding corresponds with that of the interviewee.
- The interviewer may also want to ask the interviewee to expand on a topic or clarify a concept that she used.
- During this process the researcher should keep an eye on the recording device, to ensure that it is still recording the interview.
- Towards the end of the allotted time, the researcher starts to round off the interview, by asking if there is anything that the respondent still wishes to add, or if the respondent has any questions. The researcher then summarises and concludes by thanking the interviewee.

Kvale (1996) argues that the person of the researcher is critical for the quality of the knowledge that is collected. Henning (2004) and McNamara (2009) suggest the interviewer should consider the following elements to contribute to the success of the interview.

- Use a gentle tone of voice.
- Avoid judgmental phrasing.
- Attempt to remain as neutral as possible, and do not show strong emotional reactions to the interviewees' responses.
- Encourage responses with occasional nods of the head, "uh huh"s, etc.
- Adopt a knowing approach by rephrasing questions to include the knowledge you have acquired during the interview.
- Provide transition between major topics, e.g. "We've been talking about your training and experience and now I'd like to move on to the implementation of language policies in your school".
- Listen carefully to the participants' responses.
- Do not include the research theme/question directly in the interview questions.
- Start with the less threatening or easier questions and ease into the more difficult ones.
- Do not lose control of the interview.

Following the interviews, the researcher prepared a written version, a transcript, of each interview. Poland and Pedersen describe transcription as a product in itself:

transcription is a transformational process, taking live conversation and changing it into a textual representation of talk. Hence, transcripts are silent in several ways. They are, for instance, silent about body language, such as gestures, facial expressions ... and positioning ... (Poland & Pedersen 1998: 302).

An experienced transcriber, who also has an extensive knowledge of FAL teaching, was appointed to transcribe the interviews verbatim and directly from the tape. Barbour (2008: 192) sees a verbatim transcript as a "useful resource" that allows the researcher to return to the data at a later stage to carry out further analysis. All pauses and other non-verbal indications of what occurred were included in the transcripts (Rubin & Rubin 1995). The researcher then checked the transcripts against the recordings of the interviews for correctness. In a further step to verify the transcripts, two transcripts were sent to two of the interviewees to read through and comment on their correctness. In both cases the participants were satisfied with the content of the transcripts.

4.6.5 Ethical considerations

Wisker (2008: 87) explains that ethical guidelines “insist that researchers should not do physical or psychological harm and that, where human subjects are involved, the participants should give their fully informed consent before taking part”. Labov coined the phrase “principle of debt incurred”, which he describes as follows:

An investigator who has obtained linguistic data from members of a speech community has an obligation to use the knowledge based on that data for the benefit of the community, when it has need of it (Labov 1982: 172-173).

This principle implies that those doing research in a language classroom have the obligation to use the data they gather to increase the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of that community of learners. This is exactly what the researcher stated as one of the research objectives of this study, namely to inform decisions about curriculum and syllabus design in the CPUT Faculty of Education and Social Sciences for purposes of Afrikaans FAL teacher training. This, in turn, may have a positive impact on the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in Grade 4 - 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) state clearly that ethical principles should be considered throughout all stages of research planning and data collection. Kvale (1996: 112 – 117) and Henning (2004: 73) discuss three ethical guidelines for human research: informed consent, confidentiality and awareness of consequences. Informed consent requires

informing the research subjects about the overall purpose of the study and the main features of the design, as well as of any possible risks and benefits from participation in the research project. Informed consent further involves obtaining the voluntary participation of the subject, with his or her right to withdraw from the study at any time, thus counteracting potential undue influence and coercion (Kvale 1996: 112).

Before schools were contacted and invited to take part in this research project, written consent for conducting research in WCED schools had been obtained from the research department of the WCED (see Appendix B). According to Struwig and Stead (2001), the consent from the department or the principal is not enough.

When conducting research at an institution, such as a high school, you cannot assume that consent from the principal to conduct research is adequate. Permission should be obtained from the learners, and in some cases, the parents (Struwig & Stead 2001:68).

Therefore letters of consent (see Appendices C and D) were attached to the questionnaires sent to all the WCED urban primary schools that offer Afrikaans as FAL and are CPUT practice teaching schools, inviting them to take part in the research. Included was a letter to the principals in which the researcher introduced herself, informing them of the purpose of the study and asking their permission to conduct the research in their schools. The principals had to complete the attached consent form to conduct research in their schools which had to be returned, with the completed questionnaires, by a specified date. Attached to each questionnaire was a letter to the FAL teacher (see Appendix D), with the same information as in the letter to the principal and a request to complete the questionnaire. Teachers were also assured of the confidentiality of their responses as well as their anonymity. Each participating teacher also had to complete a consent form (see Appendices D and E) in which they indicated their willingness to participate in this research project voluntarily.

Confidentiality and anonymity in research implies that schools and participants will not be identifiable in print (Kvale 1996). The participants were guaranteed that their questionnaires and interviews would be treated confidentially, that their contributions and the information gained from the questionnaires and interviews would remain confidential by referring to them and the schools under code names. The raw data (completed questionnaires and audio tapes) are carefully and safely stored in the safe of CPUT in Mowbray. The research findings will be made available to the participants on request.

Kvale (1996) states that the principle of “beneficence” means “the risk of harm to a subject should be the least possible. The sum of potential benefits to a subject and the importance of the knowledge gained should outweigh the risk of harm to the subject” (Kvale 1996: 116). The potential risks and discomforts of participation in the study should be explained to the participants. In the case of this study, the subjects were not exposed to any risks or inconvenience. The researcher should also inform the participants of any potential benefits of the study to the subjects and society. Although there was no financial benefit for the participants, the benefits of the study for teacher training in general, and the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL specifically, were explained to the participating teachers.

4.6.6 Validity of the instruments

Babbie (1995: 301) defines validity as follows: “Validity concerns whether measurements actually measure what they are supposed to rather than measuring something else”. According to Kvale (1996: 236), validity refers to the truth and correctness of a statement and he further describes a valid argument as “sound, well grounded, justifiable, strong, and

convincing". Hammersley (in Silverman 2011) states that validity is "the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers" (Hammersley 1990: 57). The notion of "accuracy and precision" is also stressed by Denscombe (2007: 296). Kvale (2002: 309) argues that "validation depends on good craftsmanship in an investigation, which includes continually checking, questioning, and theoretically interpreting the findings". Wisker (2008: 322) is of the opinion that if the researcher's methods, approaches and techniques really fit with and measure the issues he/she has been researching, then the findings are likely to be valid. Denscombe (2007: 296 – 297) regards the research findings as valid when the data are appropriate in terms of the research question, if the researcher is impartial and neutral and has no influence on the research outcome, if the data have been produced and checked in accord with good practice, and if proof of triangulation can be provided.

4.6.6.1 Validity of the questionnaire

To qualify as a research questionnaire, the questionnaire in this study had to comply with a number of requirements in order to ensure its validity. Denscombe's (2007: 168 – 169) and Czaja and Blair's (1996:62– 63) criteria for evaluating questionnaires were used to determine the validity of the questionnaire in this study.

The questionnaire had to be designed in such a way that it would provide full data on the topic of research. It had to cover all vital information pertaining to the area of research. In this study the aim was to determine the state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. The questions therefore had to cover all aspects of FAL teaching. It was important that all respondents received an identical set of questions. This would ensure consistency and accuracy with regard to the wording and would make the capturing and analysis of the data easier. In order to ensure the uniform interpretation of the questions by respondents, the questionnaire had been sent to two colleagues who are knowledgeable about the field of study to scrutinise the wording of the questions. After that the questionnaire was piloted on three Afrikaans FAL teachers.

A second criterion is that the questionnaire had to provide accurate information. It was very difficult to determine to what extent the responses on the questionnaires are as full and honest as they could be. In an attempt to produce a more accurate, comprehensive and objective representation of the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL, semi-structured interviews were conducted with some of the respondents of the questionnaires, after the completion of the

questionnaires, which served as triangulation of the data collected by means of the questionnaires.

The success of the questionnaire also rested on the assumption that a decent response rate would be achieved. In order to get a representative picture, as many of the questionnaires as possible needed to be completed and returned; therefore the questionnaire had to avoid turning people off by being poorly presented, taking too long to complete and asking insensitive questions. In an attempt to increase the response rate, the researcher had the questionnaires delivered to the schools by student teachers; she contacted the principals telephonically to find out whether they had received the questionnaires and reminded the student teachers via sms to collect the questionnaires from the teachers and return them to the researcher.

Fourth, the questionnaire needed to comply with ethical requirements. The respondents were given the assurance that the information they provided would be treated according to strict professional standards. The teachers had been informed about the nature of the research so that they could make an informed decision about whether they wanted to participate in the research.

4.6.6.2 Validity of the interviews

Validity is also referred to as trustworthiness or credibility in qualitative research. Qualitative research is more concerned with validity than reliability to determine whether the account provided by the researcher and the participants is accurate, can be trusted, and is credible (Henning 2004; McMillan & Schumacher 2010; Lincoln & Guba 2000). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 198) regard qualitative validity as entailing “assessing whether the information obtained through the qualitative data collection is accurate”. The validity of interviews is often questioned; therefore the validity of the interview schedule and the interview process is central to qualitative research. A crucial question that the researcher should ask him/herself is: Is the interviewee telling the truth? When the aim of the interview is to gather factual information, the researcher can make some checks to ascertain whether the information is corroborated by other interviewees and other sources. When the interview is concerned with emotions, feelings and experiences of the interviewees, it is much more difficult to verify the information (Denscombe 2007). In this study the researcher took the following measures to ensure the validity of the interviews.

- The interviewer (the researcher) has been trained in conducting interviews.
-

- The interviewer refrained from asking leading questions which might have influenced the interviewees' responses.
- The interviewees had been selected because they were in a position to provide information about the topic of the study. They were all Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools, and therefore representative of the population studied.
- The interviewer ensured that all participants shared the same understanding of terminology used in the interview questions.
- The transcripts of the interviews were checked by the researcher against the audio tapes of the interviews and transcripts of two interviews were checked by the relevant interviewees.
- The researcher carefully recorded and analysed all of the data gathered and presented them in a fair and unbiased manner.
- The data of the interviews were compared with the data gathered through the quantitative questionnaires (triangulation).
- The researcher checked for consistency in the interview data, and reported and examined inconsistencies (McKay 2006; Denscombe 2007; Silverman 2011).

4.6.7 Reliability of the instruments

Babbie (1995: 301) defines reliability as follows: "Reliability ... is a matter of dependability: If you made the same measurement again and again, would you get the same result?" Creswell and Plano Clark (2011: 198) agree with this definition when they describe quantitative reliability as follows: "scores received from participants are consistent and stable over time." As mentioned earlier, several researchers (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011; Creswell 2007; Lincoln & Guba 2000) are in agreement that reliability does not play such an important role in qualitative research.

4.6.7.1 Reliability of the questionnaires

According to Czaja and Blair (1996), the reliability of data obtained through questionnaires depends in large part on the uniform administration of questions and their uniform interpretation by the respondents. In order to satisfy this requirement, the researcher sent out the same questionnaire to all the respondents. The questionnaire had been piloted with three Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grades 4 – 6 before it was distributed to determine whether

the terminology used was interpreted in the same way and whether the questions were clear enough. All the respondents were Afrikaans FAL teachers who should have a good understanding of the language and who were familiar with the terminology used in the questionnaire. In a previous section (see 4.6.6.1) the researcher discussed how she strove to apply the criteria according to which a research questionnaire is evaluated (Denscombe 2007; Czaja & Blair 1996).

4.6.7.2 Reliability of the interviews

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) are of the opinion that reliability has limited meaning in qualitative research, unless there is an interest in comparing coding among several codes. The main concern of qualitative researchers is whether the respondents are telling the truth. According to Denscombe (2007), there is no watertight way in which the researcher can verify this. There are, however, certain measures the researcher can put in place to increase the reliability of interview data.

In the case of this study, the same interviewer conducted all the interviews, asking the same questions from the interview schedule to all interviewees. The interviewer also refrained from asking leading questions in an attempt not to influence the respondents' answers. To increase the reliability of the interview data, the transcription of the interviews was done verbatim by an experienced transcriber. The researcher checked the transcriptions against the original audio recordings and also asked two interviewees to check the transcriptions of their interviews for correctness. The data from the interviews were compared to the data from the other methods of data collection, e.g. questionnaires. Triangulation did take place (Kvale 1996: 163, 235; Silverman 2011: 360 – 361).

4.7 DATA-ANALYSIS PROCESS

Two different research instruments, namely questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, were implemented to collect data. The various ways in which the data were analysed are discussed in the following sections.

4.7.1 Quantitative data management and analysis

Slattery *et al.* (2011) state that once the responses to the survey have been received, the management of the data becomes crucial for the successful utilisation of the questionnaires. The data are usually compiled within a spreadsheet using a pre-set code that allows easy

interpretation and manipulation of the data. This process will allow the raw data to be converted into meaningful and interpretable information (Struwig & Stead 2001). In the case of this study, codes were allocated to the different options during the design of the questionnaire and the raw data were entered onto an EXCEL spreadsheet. After the researcher ensured that the data were correctly entered, the data were sent to the Centre for Statistical Consultation at the University of Stellenbosch, where the computer programme STATISTICA was used to analyse the data.

According to Creswell and Plano (2011: 227), researchers usually present quantitative results in a visual form, e.g. bar charts, scatterplots, line graphs, or charts. These visual forms illustrate the trends and distribution of the data and need to be easy to read and understand. Only one statistical test should usually be presented in each figure. The analysis of the data of this study produced descriptive statistics (Struwig & Stead 2001: 153) in the form of frequency tables with the assistance of histograms and bar graphs. Frequencies were reported as absolute numbers accompanied by percentages. This statistical presentation of the data provided “an overall, coherent and straightforward picture” (Struwig & Stead 2001: 158) of the quantitative data collected.

4.7.2 Qualitative data management and analysis

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999: 22), the researcher will generate data which can answer the research question by employing a specific theoretical framework, research design and methodology. These data need to be analysed in order to select, categorise, compare and interpret the phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher 2001: 462). Babbie (1995: 394) describes qualitative data analysis as the “non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations”. Henning (2004: 101) explains how important it is for the researcher to capture understanding of the data in writing. Kvale (1996: 187) identifies five main approaches to interview analysis, namely “categorisation of meaning, condensation of meaning, structuring of meaning through narratives, interpretation of meaning, and ad hoc methods for generating meaning”.

Denscombe (2007: 287 - 288) notes that qualitative data analysis is based upon four guiding principles:

- The analysis and conclusions drawn should be grounded in the evidence that has been collected;

- The researcher's explanation of the data should emerge from a careful and meticulous reading of the data;
- The researcher should not introduce any unwarranted prejudices or biases into the data analysis;
- The analysis of data should be an iterative process whereby theory, concepts, hypotheses or generalisations should be developed through a process that constantly moves back and forth comparing the empirical data with the codes, categories and concepts that are being used.

The process of interview analysis starts with a set of data, in the case of this study, a verbatim transcription of interviews. It is important that the researcher becomes very familiar with the data by reading it repeatedly until units of meaning can be identified (Henning 2004: 104 – 106). These transcriptions are then analysed either manually or with computer programs such as Atlas.ti. In the case of this study the transcriptions were analysed manually. The units of meaning, or related codes, were grouped or categorised. The researcher used the data as a guide in deciding what a category should be called. This process is referred to by McMillan and Schumacher (2001: 462) as “making sense” of the data.

In analysing the qualitative data of this study, the researcher will implement the seven principles identified by Tesch (1990 in Henning 2004: 127 – 128) for qualitative research analysis.

- Qualitative analysis takes place throughout the data-collection process. The researcher constantly reflects on impressions, relationships and connections while collecting the data. The search for similarities, differences, categories, themes, concepts and ideas forms part of the continuous process.
 - An analysis starts with reading all the data and then dividing the data into smaller and more meaningful units.
 - Data units are then organised into a system that is derived from the data. The data analysis is therefore inductive.
 - The researcher uses comparisons to build categories and to identify patterns.
 - It is very important that the analysis truly reflects the respondents' perceptions.
 - The result of the analysis is a higher-order synthesis in the form of a descriptive picture, themes or theory.
-

The data analysis in this study was managed manually. The categories that were built, relate to the teaching of a first additional language, e.g. teacher language proficiency, methodology used in the classroom, LTSM used in the classroom, knowledge and implementation of language policies and learner performance.

4.8 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a detailed description of the study's research design. The use of a pragmatic research paradigm was explained and the motivation for a mixed methods design and the choice of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as data collection techniques were substantiated.

The reasons for making use of convenience sampling to select the sample for the quantitative strand of the study and random purposive sampling to determine the sample for the qualitative strand were explained in detail. Aspects such as the required ethical principles and the reliability and validity of the research instruments were discussed. The researcher also elaborated on the manual qualitative data analysis process of coding and categorising and the steps that were followed in managing and analysing the quantitative data.

Chapter 5 will present and interpret the research data collected through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to describe the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in Grade 4 – 6 classes in urban schools in the Western Cape. The previous chapter presented a detailed discussion of the data research methodology and processes of data collection and analysis. A mixed methods or multi-method research design was used, which allowed the researcher access to quantitative and qualitative data (Creswell, 2009; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006; Niglas, 2009; Palak & Walls, 2009). This method provided the researcher with a better understanding of the research problem than either approach on its own would have allowed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:5).

Quantitative data were collected by means of questionnaires which were completed by Afrikaans FAL teachers in Western Cape urban schools; 125 completed questionnaires were returned and the data were captured on an Excel spreadsheet. The captured data were then analysed by the Centre for Statistical Consultation at Stellenbosch University. For the purpose of summarising the results, frequency tables with the use of histograms and bar graphs were reported. Frequencies are reported as absolute numbers accompanied by percentages.

Interviews were conducted with 17 Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grades 4 – 6 to collect the qualitative data that provided the researcher with in-depth information about the teachers' knowledge, skills and experiences (Turner 2010: 754). In order for the qualitative data gathered from the interviews to be utilised to illuminate as well as triangulate the data from the questionnaires, the interview questions were framed within the themes addressed in the questionnaires, namely teacher profile, language policy issues, learner profile, curriculum planning and delivery, teaching methodology, and availability and use of learning and teaching support material (LTSM). These interviews were recorded and then transcribed verbatim by an experienced transcriber.

The data of the questionnaires are presented first and then the interview results will be presented, discussed and compared with the results of the questionnaires.

5.2 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

This section presents, analyses and discusses the results of the questionnaires.

5.2.1 School language profile

Questions 1 – 4 deal with the school language profile of the participating schools; 125 Afrikaans FAL teachers from 57 primary schools in the Cape Town Metropole completed and returned the questionnaires (see Appendix J.1 – J.5). The distribution per school district was as follows: Metropole North: 26; Metropole South: 30; Metropole East: 10 and Metropole Central: 25; 34 respondents did not indicate the school district in which their school was situated. The majority (75 or 95%) of the teachers who participated in the research project indicated that English is the official language of learning and teaching (LoLT) at their school, and it is in these schools where Afrikaans would be offered as one of, or the only, first additional languages. Afrikaans is the LoLT in 3 (or 4%) of the schools and 1 (or 1%) of respondents indicated that another language, Arabic, is the LoLT. The majority (85 or 97%) of the schools offer only English as LoLT in all classes. From the data collected it is evident that some teachers cannot make a clear distinction between the terms ‘parallel medium’, ‘dual medium’ and ‘monolingual’, even though these terms were explained very clearly in the questionnaire. As a result four teachers indicated that their schools are both dual medium and monolingual, and another two teachers indicated that their schools are both parallel and dual medium. It is evident from the data that the majority of schools that were involved in the research have English as LoLT.

5.2.2 Learner profile and proficiency

This section deals with the learners’ own home languages, exposure to the target language, Afrikaans, and proficiency in Afrikaans.

Question 5

What is the home language/mother tongue of the majority of learners at the school?

According to this distribution (see Appendix J.6) 89 or 74% of the teachers reported that English (code 3) is the home language of the learners at their schools. In only nine or 8% of the cases was Afrikaans (code 2) identified as the home language of the majority of learners and only five or 4% of teachers reported that the majority of learners’ home language is isiXhosa (code 1). As none of the schools offers isiXhosa as LoLT, these learners have a language other than their home language as their LoLT. 16 or 14% of teachers indicated that there are two majority language groups in their schools. The high frequency of English as home language corresponds positively with the data collected on the school profile (see

5.2.1), which indicates that the majority of schools offer only English as LoLT. This also means that the majority of learners at the participating schools have Afrikaans or another language as their FAL.

Question 6.1

When not in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, how often do most learners in the school hear or use Afrikaans in other classes at school?

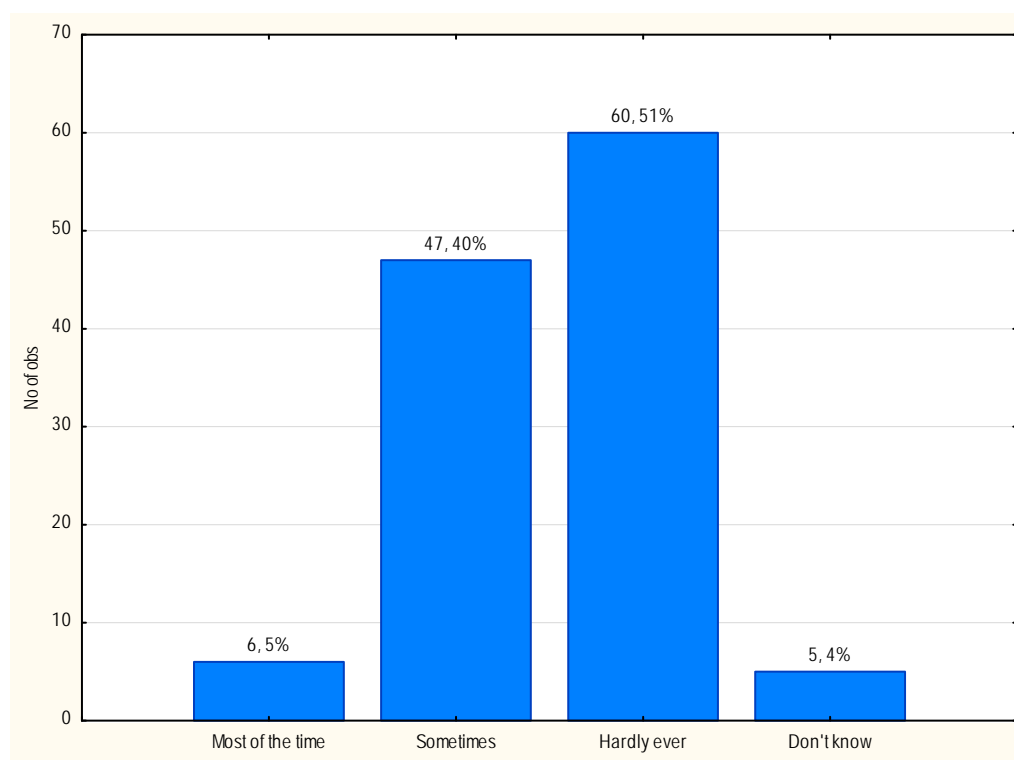


Figure 5.1: *Distribution of exposure to Afrikaans in other classes at school*

According to the distribution, the vast majority of learners have little exposure to Afrikaans in other classes at school. 60 or 51% of the teachers indicated that the learners are hardly ever or never (code 3) exposed to Afrikaans in other classes at school, and only 47 or 40% reported exposure to Afrikaans in other classes happens sometimes (code 2). The low frequency (6 or 5%) of exposure to Afrikaans in other classes at school all or most of the time (code 1) may be a result of the fact that English is reported to be the LoLT of the school by 75 or 95% of the participants (see Question 3).

As discussed in 3.4.5, learners who are regularly exposed to the target language outside the FAL classroom will have a better command of the language than learners who hear the

language only in the FAL classroom. The emphasis for language acquisition is thus on exposure, or input. Learners of an additional language base the language they produce on the comprehensible language patterns they have been exposed to over a prolonged period of time. Therefore, the more the learners hear the language, the more language the learners will eventually be able to produce (Richards & Rodgers 1986). The FAL learners in these classes do not have sufficient exposure to the target language, as the majority of them do not hear or speak Afrikaans in other classes at school or in their community (see Question 6.2).

Question 6.2

When not in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, how often do most learners in the school hear or use Afrikaans at home or in their community?

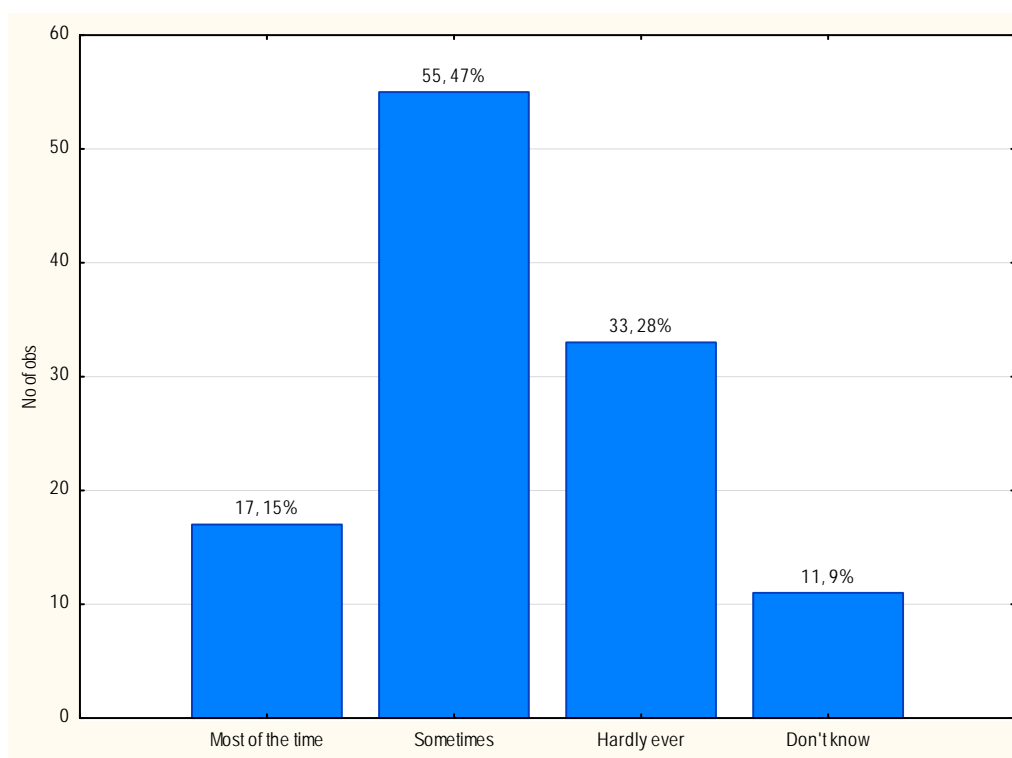


Figure 5.2: *Distribution of exposure to Afrikaans at home or in their community*

According to the distribution, learners have more exposure to Afrikaans at home or in their communities than in other classes at school. 55 or 47% of teachers reported that the learners in their school are exposed to Afrikaans at home or in their communities sometimes (code 2), and 17 or 15% indicated that exposure to Afrikaans at home or in their communities happens all or most of the time (code 1). These high frequencies can be ascribed to the fact that Afrikaans is still being spoken by a large portion of communities in the Western Cape,

especially on the Cape Flats, where many of the participating schools are situated. It is alarming that 33 or 28% of the teachers indicated that their learners hardly ever or never (code 3) hear Afrikaans at home or in their communities. What is of great concern is the fact that 11 or 9% of the teachers do not know (code 4) to what extent their learners are exposed to the target language at home or in their communities.

According to Alexander (2000), exposure to the target language outside the classroom is one of the most frequently quoted conditions as important for instruction in an additional language. Schmidt (1990), Lantolf and Thorne (2006) and Long (1996) claim that the benefits of interaction with the target language, e.g. through participation in cultural activities and other activities, are greater than the benefits of exposure to input alone (see 3.4.4.4).

Question 7.1

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in listening and understanding?

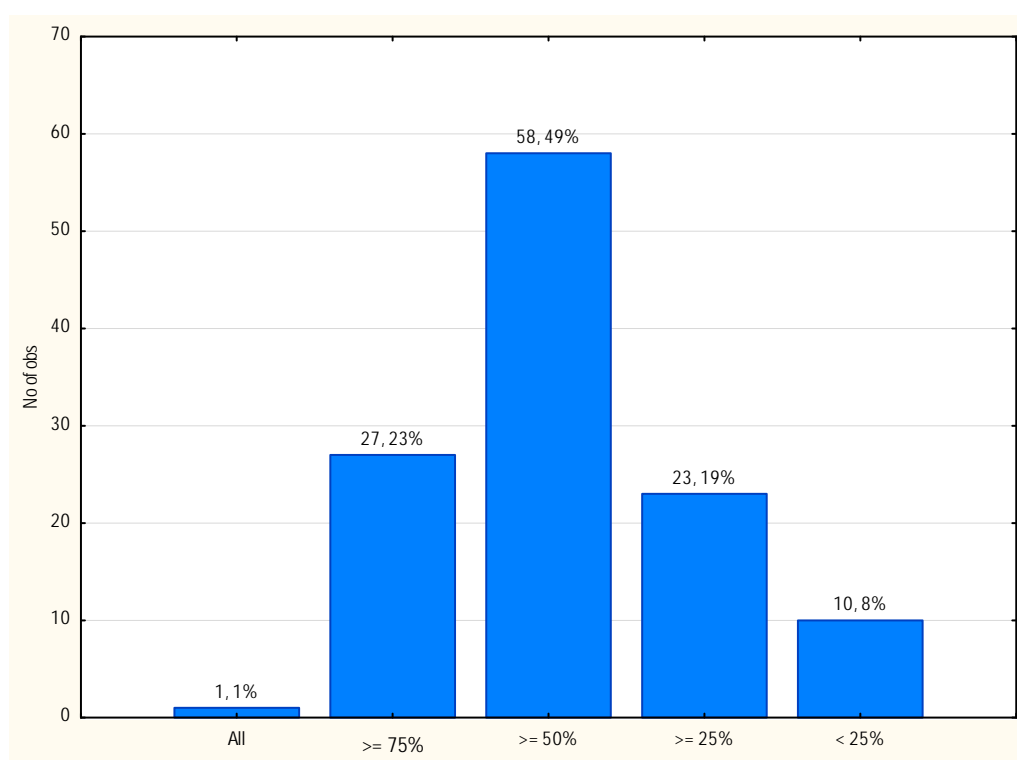


Figure 5.3: Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in listening and understanding

According to the distribution, 76% of learners (codes 3, 4 and 5) performed at a level below the RNCS requirements for their particular grade. Only 1 or 1% of the teachers indicated that

all the learners in his/her Afrikaans FAL classes perform at the required levels in listening and understanding, and in 27 or 23% of the cases most or at least three quarters (code 2) of the learners perform at their RNCS grade levels in listening and understanding. As understanding of the spoken language is so important to acquire a language at any level, it is of great concern that so many learners do not perform at the level expected of them. This poor performance in listening and understanding might be a result of the limited exposure to the target language many of the learners have outside the Afrikaans classroom (Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2), or may be even be due to the fact that many of these learners have only been introduced to formal instruction in the target language in Grade 3.

Question 7.2

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in reading aloud?

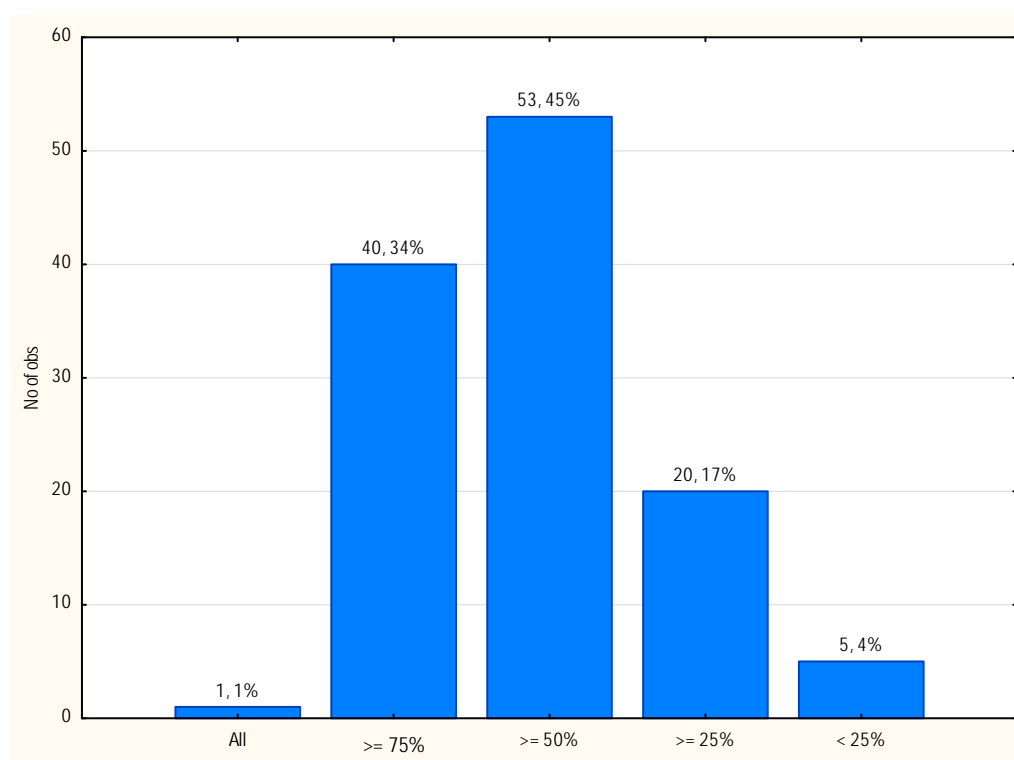


Figure 5.4: *Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in reading aloud*

According to the distribution, at least half (code 3) of the learners in 53 or 45% of the classes perform at the required RNCS levels when reading aloud. In 40 or 34% of the classes most or three quarters (code 2) of the learners perform at the expected levels. The data show that in 25 or 21% of the classes the majority of learners (codes 4 and 5) cannot read aloud at the

required levels. It is interesting to note that more learners performed at the required NCS levels in reading aloud than in listening and understanding (Figure 5.3).

Question 7.3

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in speaking?

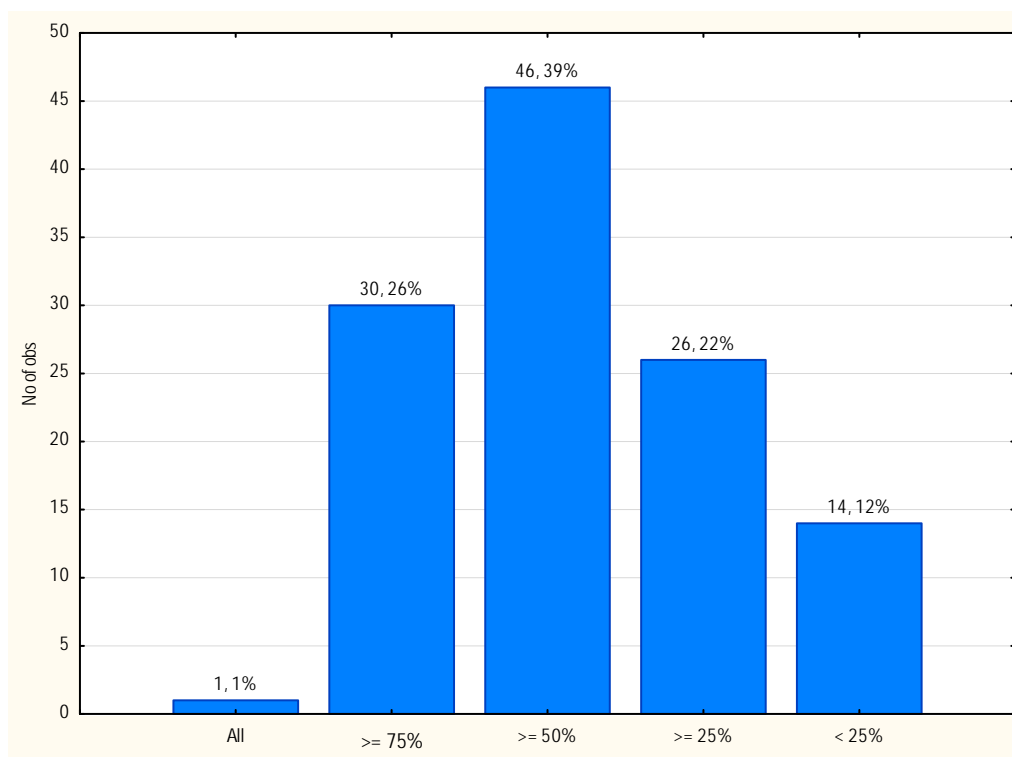


Figure 5.5: Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in speaking

According to the distribution, at least half (code 3) of the learners in 46 or 39% of the classes perform at the required RNCS levels in speaking. In 30 or 26% of the classes most or three quarters (code 2) of the learners are performing at the required levels. In 30 or 34% of the classes 75% or more of the learners (codes 4 and 5) do not manage to perform at the required RNCS levels in speaking. When compared to the learners' performance in listening and understanding (Figure 5.3) and reading aloud (Figure 5.4), it is evident that these learners perform worse in speaking.

Question 7.4

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in reading with comprehension?

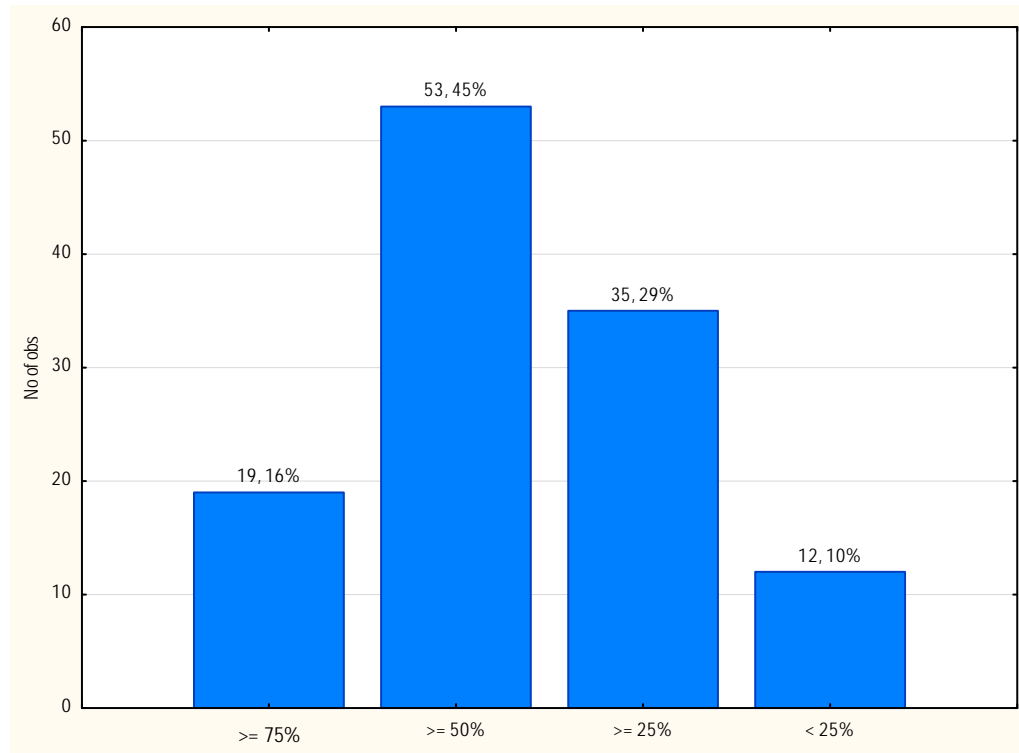


Figure 5.6: Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in reading with comprehension

According to the distribution, 84% (codes 3, 4 and 5) of the learners do not perform at the required RNCS levels in reading with comprehension. In only 19 or 16% of the classes do 75% or more of the learners reach the required levels and in no classroom do all or 100% (code 1) of the learners perform at the expected levels in reading with comprehension. When comparing the learners' performance in reading aloud (Figure 5.4) and reading with understanding (Figure 5.6), it is clear that more learners struggle to understand what they are reading than to perform the reading action. These figures support the results of the PIRLS tests (see 3.2.3) of the past number of years, where the reading levels of South African learners in Grade 6 were among the lowest in the world.

Question 7.5

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in writing?

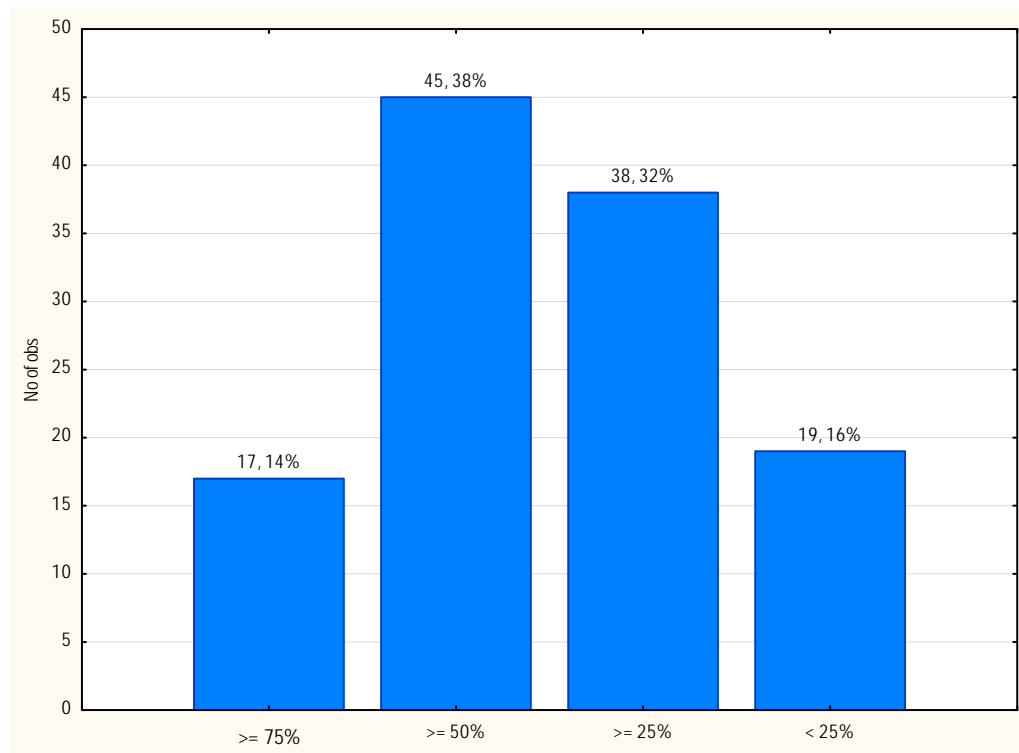


Figure 5.7: Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in writing

According to the frequency distribution, only 17 or 14% of the teachers indicated that most or three quarters (code 2) of the learners in their classes manage to perform at the expected RNCS levels in writing. This means that in 86% (codes 3, 4 and 5) of the classes 50% or more of the learners do not perform at the expected NCS levels for their particular grade in writing. In no class do all or 100% (code 1) of the learners perform at the expected levels in writing. This may be a result of writing not being taught explicitly, or not enough time being spent on writing activities. There is also a correlation between the performance of learners in writing and reading aloud and reading with comprehension. According to Krashen (1985), learners have to be exposed to massive amounts of comprehensible reading input ($i + 1$) in the target language in order to be able to develop their reading and writing skills sufficiently.

Question 7.6

How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade in grammatical accuracy?

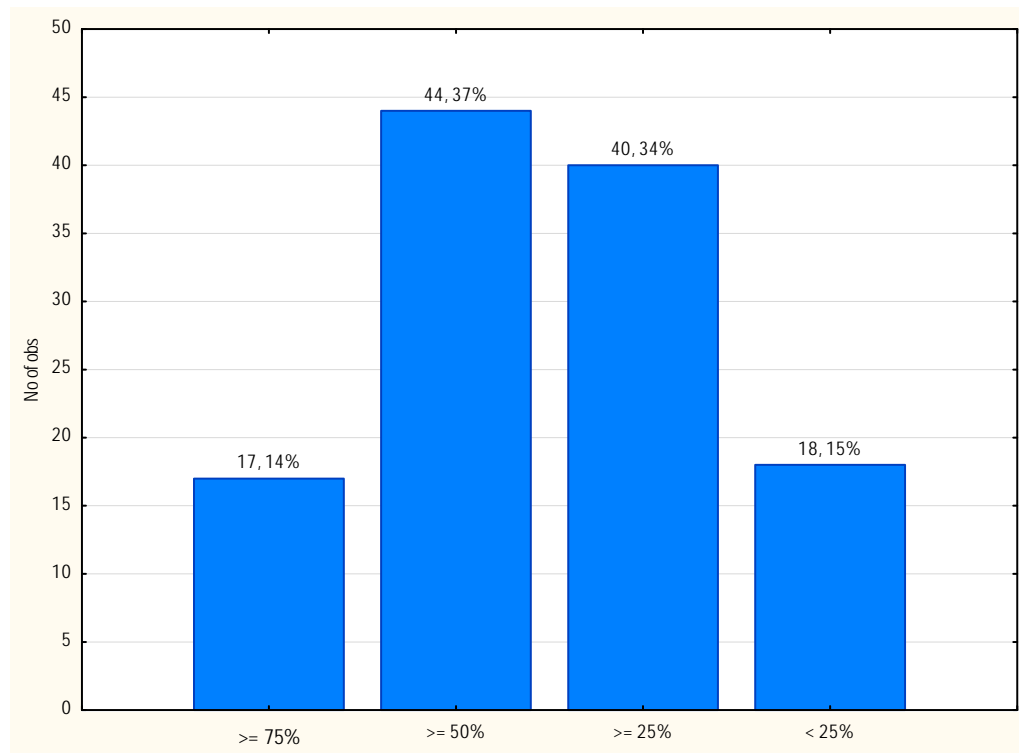


Figure 5.8: Distribution of learners performing at RNCS level in grammatical accuracy

According to the frequency distribution, there is a correlation between the learners' performance in grammatical accuracy (Figure 5.8) and reading with comprehension (Figure 5.6) and writing (Figure 5.7). In only 17 or 14% of the classes did teachers report that most or three quarters (code 2) of the learners achieve the RNCS levels in grammatical accuracy. There is not a big difference between the number of classes in which at least half (code 3) and at least a quarter (code 4) of the learners perform at the required levels in grammatical accuracy. According to the data, at least half (code 3) or more of the learners perform below the required levels with regard to grammatical accuracy in 86% of the classes. According to Brown (2001), Weideman (2002) and Richards and Rodgers (1986), accuracy is seen as one of the complementary elements of communicative techniques. The other element is fluency, which at times may have to take on more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use.

Question 8

If you indicated 4 (at least a quarter) or 5 (fewer than one quarter) above, what would you consider the most important reason for the learners' poor performance?

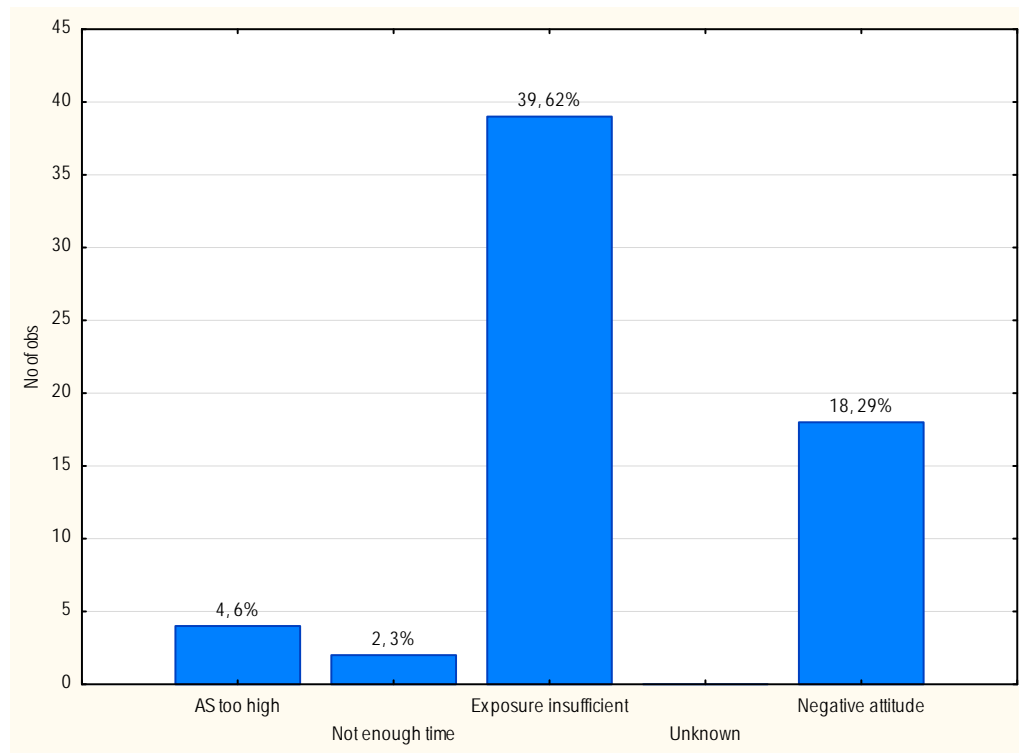


Figure 5.9: Distribution of reasons for learners' poor performance w.r.t. RNCS levels

Only 63 teachers answered this question. According to the distribution, 39 or 62% (code 3) of the respondents are of the opinion that the learners have insufficient exposure to the target language, Afrikaans. There is a correlation between these results and the results of Question 6.1 (Figure 5.1) and Question 6.2 (Figure 5.2), where it is evident that the teachers feel that the learners have very little exposure to the target language outside the Afrikaans classroom. Only two or 3% of the teachers felt that the time allocated to the target language is insufficient (code 2). This may be a result of the fact that the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a:17 – 18) allocated 6.5 hours per week to Languages, but neglected to indicate how these hours should be divided between the Home Language and the First Additional Language. This also confirms Heugh's (2006: 72) concern that too little time is allocated to the teaching of the FAL. 18 or 29% of the respondents blame the learners' negative attitude towards the target language for their poor performance. Dulay and Burt (1977) and Krashen (1982) are of the opinion that the learners' attitude and motivation do have an effect on their confidence and performance in the target language. A small number

of teachers (4 or 6%) feel that the levels set by the RNCS are too high (code 1). None of the teachers (code 4) is of the opinion that their own proficiency in the target language is lacking.

5.2.2.1 Summary

From the data it is clear that the majority of learners in these schools have English as their home language, with fairly small percentages of learners who are Afrikaans or isiXhosa speaking. Most of the learners have very little or no exposure to the target language in other classes at school, whereas more learners seem to hear and speak the language in their communities.

Despite the lack of sufficient exposure to the target language, the majority of the teachers reported that at least half or more of the learners in their Afrikaans FAL classes perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for their particular grade. The learners fare better in listening, speaking and reading aloud, but seem to struggle with reading with comprehension. The areas where almost half of learners in the classes struggle most to perform at the required levels are writing (48%) and grammatical accuracy (49%).

The two most important reasons for the learners' inability to perform at the expected levels are the learners' insufficient exposure to the target language and the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans.

5.2.3 Teacher profile

This section deals with the Afrikaans First Additional Language teachers' own proficiency in Afrikaans, training and experience as FAL teachers and knowledge of language policies and FAL curriculum.

Question 9

What language/s do you speak most of the time at home?

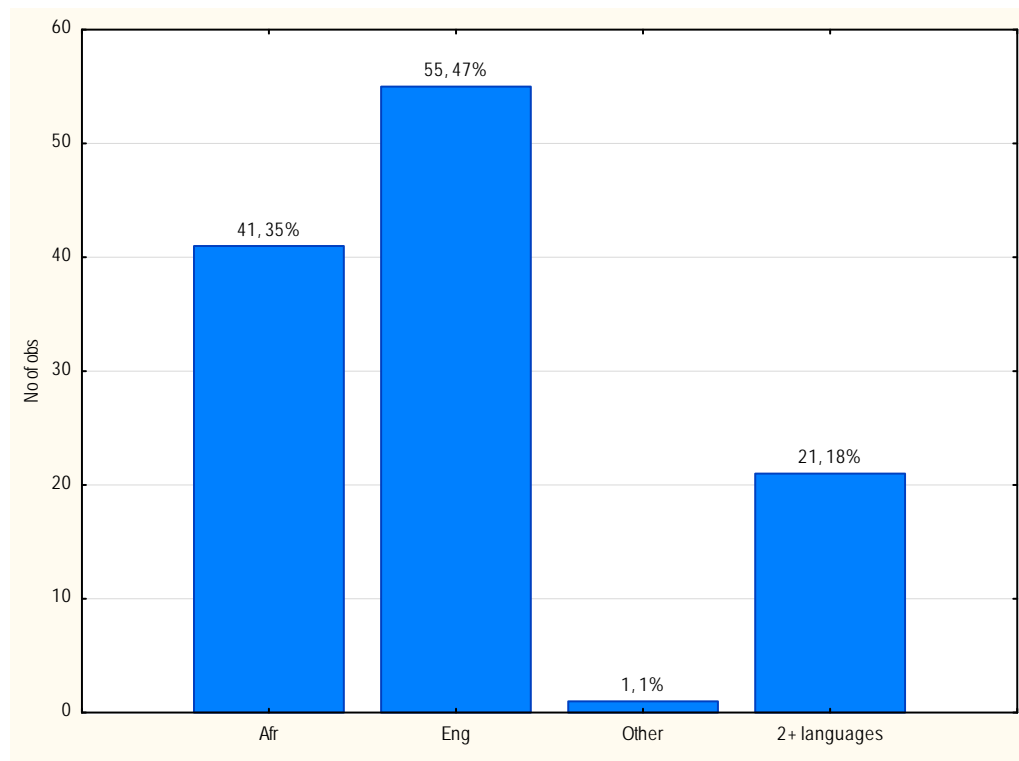


Figure 5.10: *Distribution of languages teachers speak at home*

According to this distribution, 55 or 47% of the Afrikaans FAL teachers speak English at home (code 3) and only 41 or 35% of these teachers have Afrikaans as their home language (code 2). 21 or 18% of the respondents speak two or more languages at home (code 5). All these teachers indicated they speak both English and Afrikaans at home. None of the Afrikaans FAL teachers who participated in this study speaks isiXhosa at home (code 1) and only one or 1% of the teachers indicated that she/he has another language (code 4), German, as home language. Nel and Müller (2010), Chastain (1989), Norris (1999) and Wright and Bolitho (1993) argue that the language teacher's language proficiency is of great importance in the language classroom and that more than linguistic accuracy is needed to be a successful FAL teacher (see 3.6.1). Medgyes (1992) and Widdowson (1993), on the other hand, are in agreement that a native speaker of the target language is not necessarily the ideal teacher of that language at additional language level. The non-native speaker may have the advantage of serving as a good learning model for the learners. According to them, however, the FAL teacher should be confident and competent to teach the language.

Questions 10 and 11

In which grade/s are you teaching Afrikaans as FAL and SAL in 2011?

All the teachers who participated in the study are teaching Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate and senior phase, Grades 4 to 7. Most of them teach Afrikaans FAL in only one grade. Only six teachers are responsible for the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in more than one grade. 26 of the respondents are also teaching Afrikaans as Second Additional Language (SAL) in Grades 4 to 7.

Question 12

What do you use as the medium of instruction in your Afrikaans FAL classes?

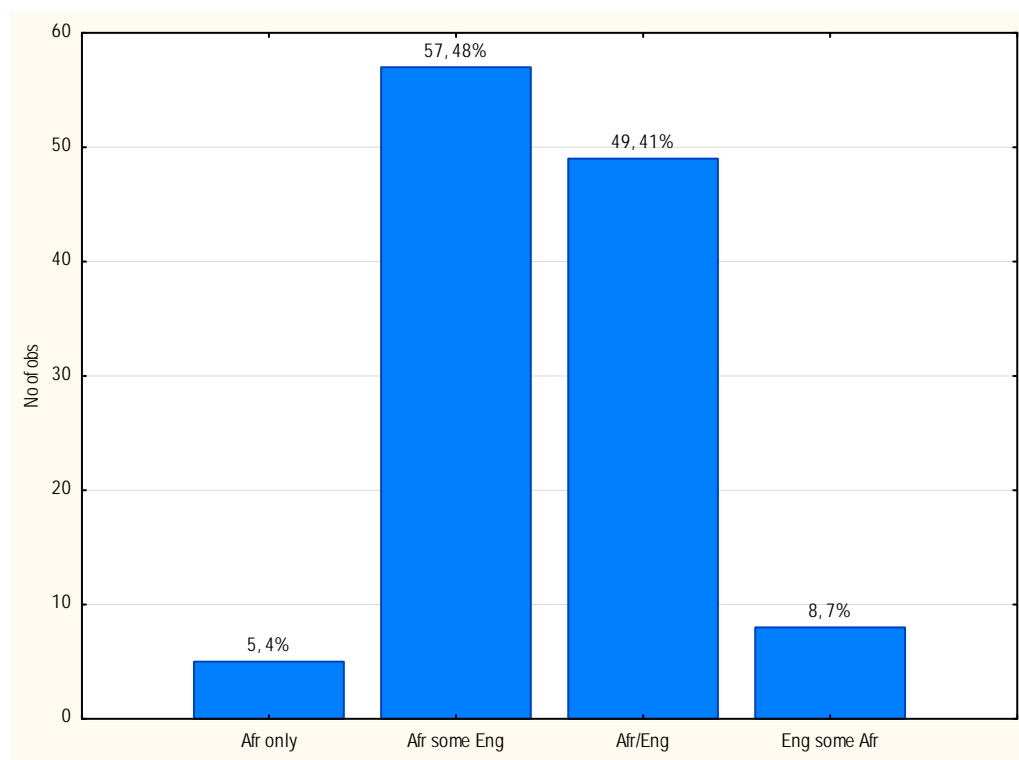


Figure 5.11: *Distribution of medium of instruction in Afrikaans FAL classrooms*

According to this distribution, Afrikaans only (code 1) is used as medium of instruction by only five or 4% of the respondents. 57 or 48% of teachers use mostly Afrikaans, with some English (code 2) as medium of instruction in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, and 49 or 41% of Afrikaans teachers use English and Afrikaans in more or less equal amounts (code 3) when teaching Afrikaans. Eight or 7% of the teachers teach Afrikaans mainly through the medium of English, with less Afrikaans (code 4).

According to the CAPS (Department of Education 2011a and 2011b), communicative language teaching (CLT) implies that the learner will have many opportunities to be exposed to the target language in order to produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. Cummins (1984) and Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004) agree that for learners to become effective communicators in the target language, they should develop their basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (see section 3.4.3). BICS provide learners with the skills to speak and to cope with pronunciation and vocabulary in order to be able to use the target language in everyday situations. Without sufficient exposure to the target language, these skills will not develop successfully. As we have seen from the results of Questions 6.1 and 6.2, the learners have limited exposure to the target language outside of the Afrikaans classroom; therefore it is of the utmost importance that they are exposed to as much Afrikaans during the FAL lessons as possible. In Question 8 (Figure 5.9) 39 or 62% of the teachers indicated that the learners' poor performance in the different areas of the target language is due to their insufficient exposure to Afrikaans, or to Afrikaans that is acceptable in the school context.

A possible reason for the teachers using English in the Afrikaans FAL classroom may be because of the learners' poor understanding of the target language (see 5.3.5.1). By implementing code switching for administrative purposes or to explain concepts in English that learners may find difficult to understand in Afrikaans, the teachers may create a more relaxed and learner-friendly atmosphere, which will enhance acquisition of the target language (van der Walt 2009). Another reason why some teachers use English and Afrikaans in more or less equal amounts in the Afrikaans FAL classroom may also be a result of the teachers' limited Afrikaans proficiency, as will be discussed in 5.3.1.3.

Questions 13

How many years (including this year) have you been a school teacher?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.18), the vast majority (103 or 83%) of teachers have 11 or more years' experience (code 4) in teaching. 7 or 6% of teachers have 6 to 10 years' teaching experience (code 3), and 13 or 10% have between 2 and 5 years' experience (code 2). Only one respondent was a novice teacher (code 1).

Question 14

How many years (including this year) have you been a teacher at this school?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.19), 54 or 44% of the respondents has been teaching at the school for 11 or more years (code 4). 24 or 19% of the teachers have been at that particular school for 6 to 10 years (code 3). 38 or 31% of respondents have been teaching at the school for 2 to 5 years (code 2), and only 8 or 6% of teachers have been teaching at the school for less than one year (code 1).

Question 15

How many years (including this year) have you taught Afrikaans as FAL?

The vast majority (a total of 75 or 62%) of respondents have 11 or more years' experience in teaching Afrikaans as FAL (see Appendix J.20). 20 or 17% of the teachers have been teaching Afrikaans as FAL for the past 6 to 10 years, and 23 or 19% of teachers have 2 to 5 years' experience in teaching Afrikaans as FAL. Only 3 or 2% of the teachers are novice FAL teachers.

Question 16

How many years (including this year) have you taught Afrikaans as SAL?

According to this distribution (see Appendix J.21), the teachers' experience in teaching Afrikaans as Second Additional Language (SAL) is far less than in teaching Afrikaans as FAL. Although only 26 respondents indicated in Question 11 that they teach Afrikaans as SAL, 47 responded positively to this question. The reason for this discrepancy is not clear. 19 or 40% of respondents indicated that they have been teaching Afrikaans SAL for 11 or more years (code 4). Three or 6% of them have 6 to 10 years' experience in teaching SAL, whereas the majority of respondents have between nought and 5 years' experience (codes 1 and 2).

Question 17.1

Please list the qualifications you obtained after school.

All the respondents had at least a post-school teaching qualification, e.g. Diploma in Education (Senior Primary). Many teachers have additional qualifications, such as a BA or a Higher Diploma in Education or a four-year BEd. Only 4 of the respondents do not have a

teaching qualification aimed at primary school teaching and 8 respondents did not answer the question.

Question 17.2

In what year did you obtain your highest qualification?

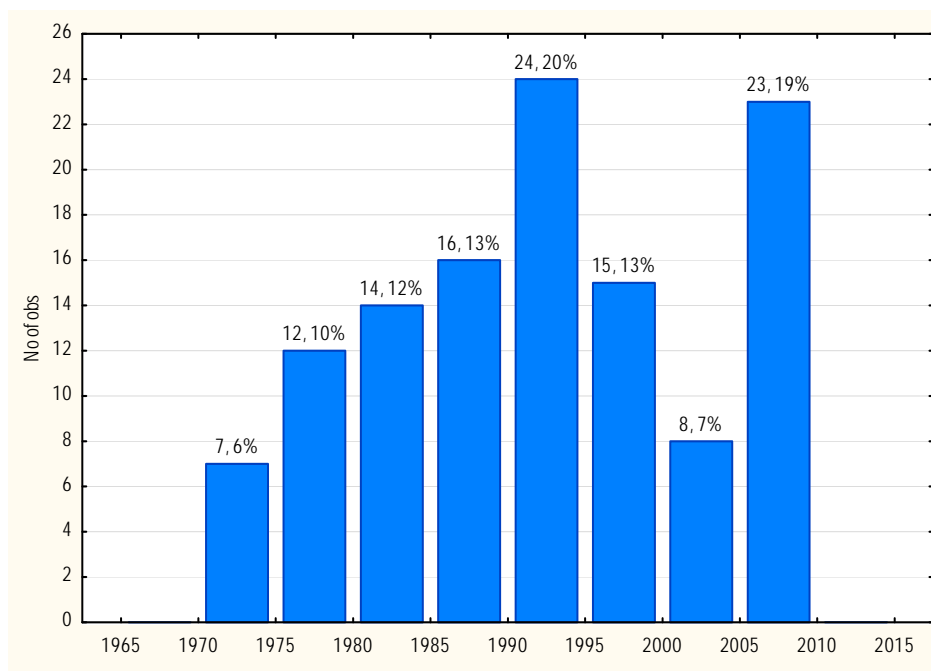


Figure 5.12: Distribution of year in which highest qualification was obtained

According to the distribution, 61% of respondents obtained their highest or last qualification before 1995 and will therefore not have had any official qualification which prepared them for Curriculum 2005, the NCS/RNCS or CAPS. Only the 39% of teachers who completed their last qualification after 1995 would have been prepared for the new curricula in their formal education. The majority (61%) of teachers will possibly have had short in-service training sessions on the new curricula. These in-service training sessions may not have been sufficient to prepare the teachers for the implementation of one new curriculum after the other.

One of the five major sources for the knowledge base of a teacher identified by Shulman (1987) (see 2.4) is knowledge of curriculum (e.g. knowledge of syllabi, of resources and of skills to develop schemes of work). 32 or 27% of the teachers qualified after 2000, which means that they would have been trained in the new curricula in acquiring their formal qualifications and should therefore be knowledgeable about the content and requirements of

the latest curricula. Training in CAPS for the intermediate phase only started in 2012, therefore these teachers would only have been introduced to this new curriculum by means of in-service training sessions provided by the WCED and NGOs.

Question 18

What is the highest level at which you studied Afrikaans in your post-school qualifications (e.g. at second-year level)?

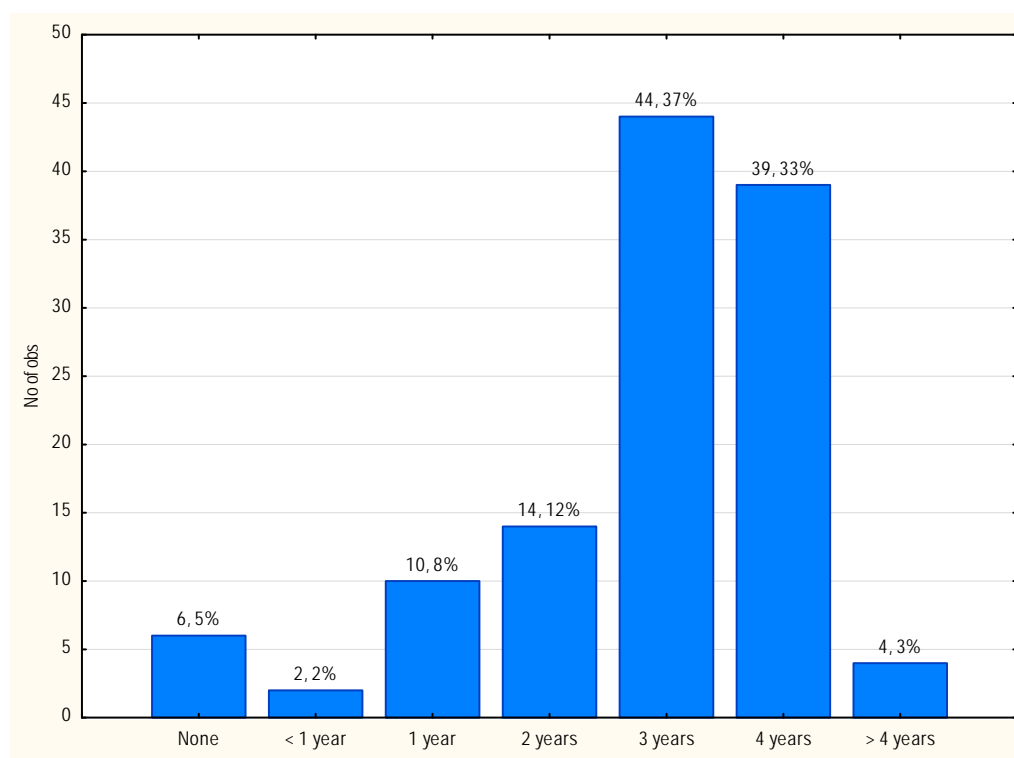


Figure 5.13: *Distribution of highest level at which Afrikaans was studied*

According to the distribution, 87 or 73% of respondents studied Afrikaans as subject for three or more years (codes 5, 6 and 7), whereas the remaining 32 or 27% of teachers have less than three years of post-school education in the target language. Another one of Shulman's (1987) five major sources for a teacher's knowledge base is knowledge of the content or subject matter that forms the major ideas and components of a particular discipline. Norris (1999) is also of the opinion that a teacher needs to have the necessary subject knowledge to teach the subject or learning area effectively. The researcher is not convinced that academic input of less than three years is enough to provide the teacher with the necessary content knowledge of the language in order to teach the subject effectively.

Question 19.1

Indicate the highest level at which you qualified in teaching of additional language (language methodology).

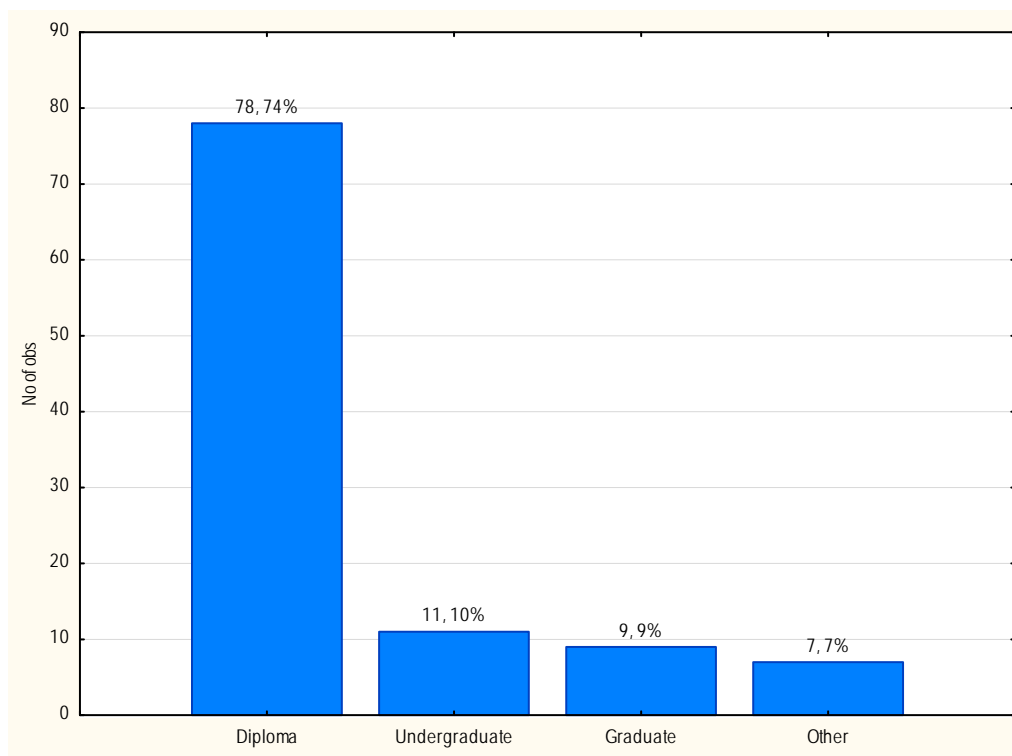


Figure 5.14: *Distribution of highest qualification in additional language methodology*

According to the distribution, the vast majority (78 or 74%) of respondents have been trained in the methodology of additional language teaching at diploma level (code 1), which is equivalent to a three-year qualification. 11 or 10% of the teachers have FAL methodology at undergraduate level (code 2), which means for two or less years. None of the teachers has a postgraduate qualification in FAL teaching. Of the 7% of respondent who indicated that they have other qualifications in FAL (code 6), 4 had FAL methodology as subject in their Higher Diploma in Education, 2 in their Postgraduate Certificate in Education and one as part of the Baccalaureus in Primary Education.

According to the ALLC (1996), the teacher should, in addition to linguistic knowledge, also have knowledge of language teaching and learning theories, as well as knowledge of language teaching methodologies. The WCED's Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (2006) states clearly that teachers should have a thorough knowledge of constructivist and social constructivist learning theories and how to implement these theories in the language

classroom. Stern (1983) is adamant that no language teacher can teach a language without knowledge of a theory or theories of language teaching.

Question 19.2

In what year did you obtain this qualification?

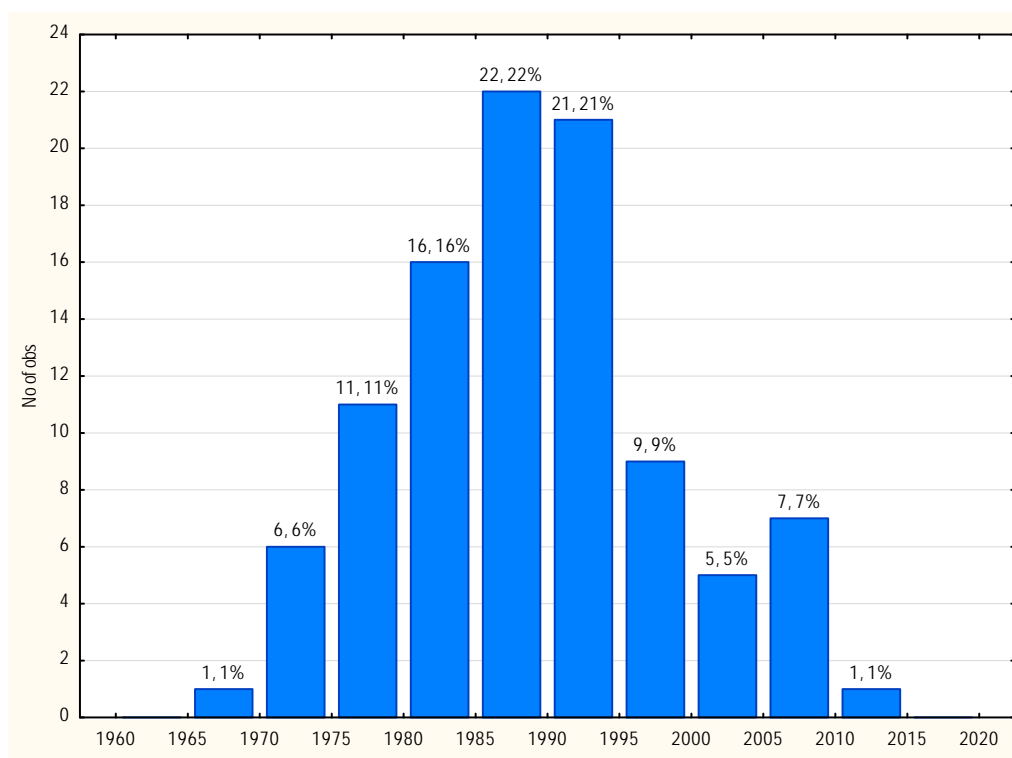


Figure 5.15: *Distribution of years in which qualification was obtained*

There is a correlation between the years in which the respondents obtained their highest qualification (Figure 5.12) and the years in which they obtained their highest qualification in additional language methodology (Figure 5.15). This may mean that the highest qualification included modules in additional language methodology. 51 or 77% of the teachers obtained their highest qualification in additional language methodology before 1995, which implies that these teachers do not have an official qualification which indicates they have been trained in presenting the new curricula (C2005, NCS, RNCS or CAPS). Their official qualification most probably also did not address the requirements of the WCED's Literacy and Numeracy Strategy for the teaching of literacy and languages. This strategy advocates the implementation of constructivist and social constructivist teaching and learning theories. If the teachers were not introduced to the content of these theories and exposed to strategies

to implement these theories in their language teaching, it will be difficult for them to do justice to the new First Additional Language curriculum.

Question 20

How well, in your opinion, did your training prepare you for teaching Afrikaans FAL?

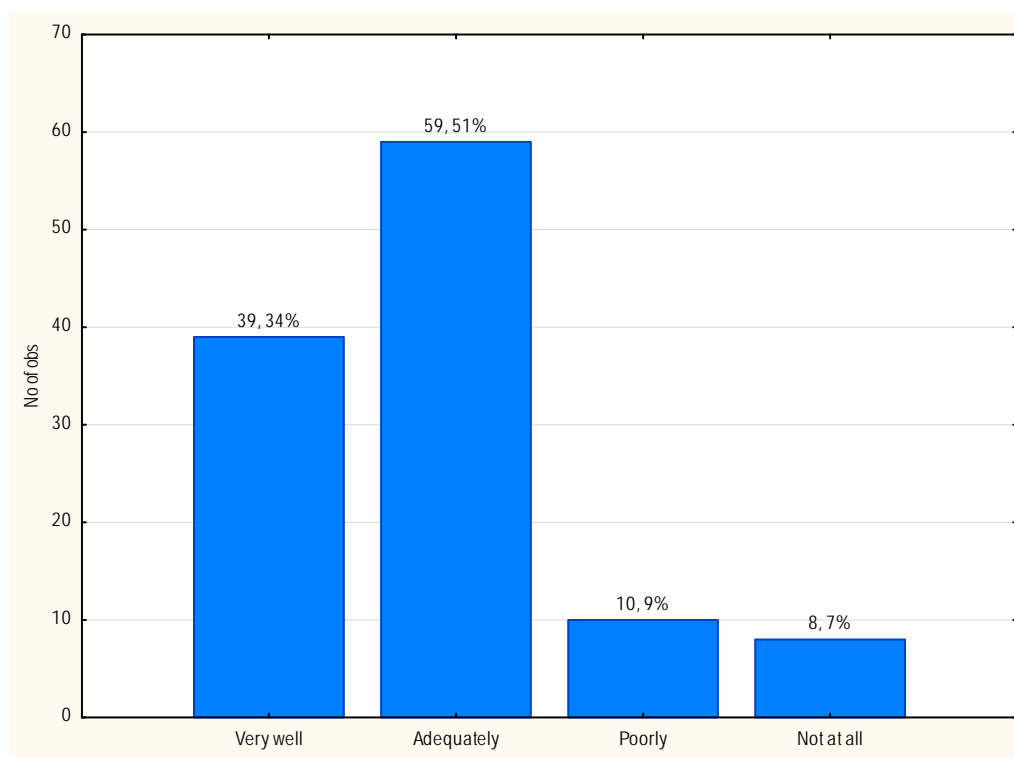


Figure 5:16: Distribution of degree of preparation to teach Afrikaans FAL

According to the distribution, the majority (59 or 51%) of the respondents are of the opinion that their teacher training qualifications prepared them adequately (code 2) to teach Afrikaans as FAL, despite the fact that 51 or 77% of the teachers obtained their highest qualification in additional language methodology before 1995 (Figure 5.15), which means that they would never have been trained for, or in, the new language curricula or the latest methodologies for additional language teaching. 39 or 43% of the teachers feel that they have been prepared very well (code 1) to teach Afrikaans FAL. These data also do not correlate with the data on when these teachers obtained their highest qualifications in the teaching of FAL. 10 or 9% of the teachers said that they had been poorly prepared to teach Afrikaans FAL (code 3) and another eight or 7% feel that their training did not prepare them at all (code 4) to teach Afrikaans FAL. The reason for the responses to code 3 and code 4 may be because these teachers completed their formal qualifications before 1995. These

qualifications would not have prepared them for the new curricula which came into place after 2002.

Question 21

Have you ever attended any in-service teacher training short courses that have been specific to the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL?

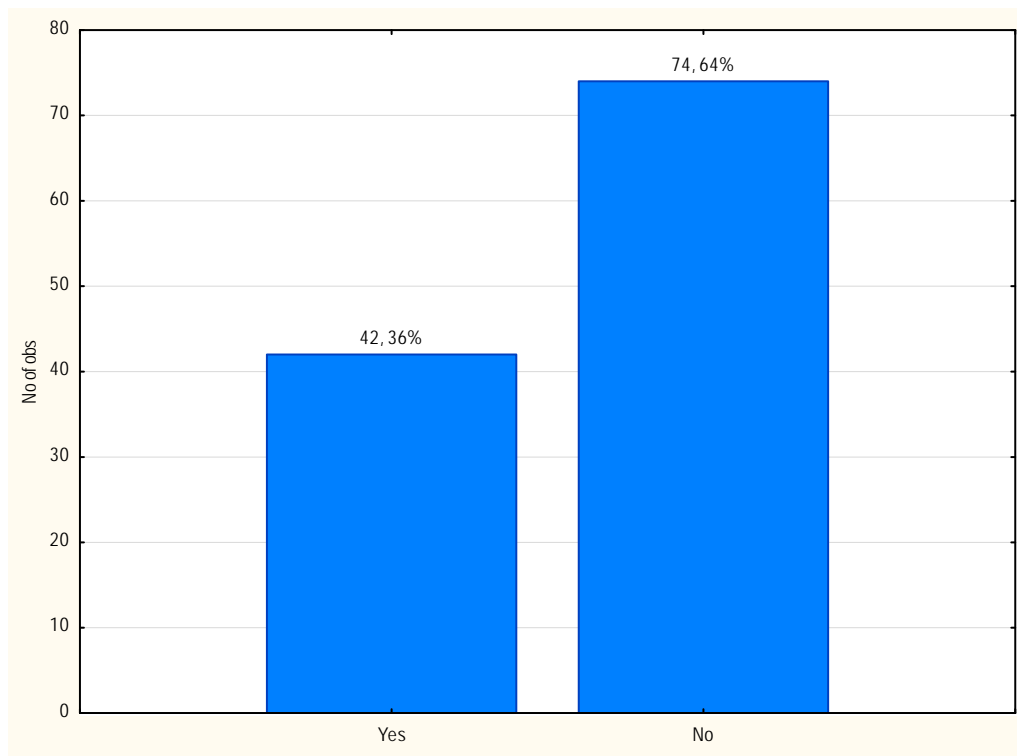


Figure 5.17: Attendance of in-service short courses specific to the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL

According to this distribution, the vast majority (74 or 64%) of the teachers have never attended any in-service teacher training short courses that have been specific to the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL. This may be due to the fact that the RNCS training for intermediate phase teachers was divided into generic sessions and subject-specific sessions. As best, intermediate phase teachers are class teachers who have to teach more than one subject; these teachers may have attended training sessions for the other subjects that they teach and not the sessions specifically aimed at Afrikaans FAL. If this choice was made by these teachers, it may be an indication that they do not regard the teaching of Afrikaans FAL as very important, or they may regard their knowledge and skills in teaching Afrikaans FAL as adequate. The latter argument may be supported by the teachers' responses to Question 20 (Figure 5.16). 42 or 36% of the respondents indicated that they have attended in-service training sessions specific to the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL.

Question 22

What was the focus of the training?

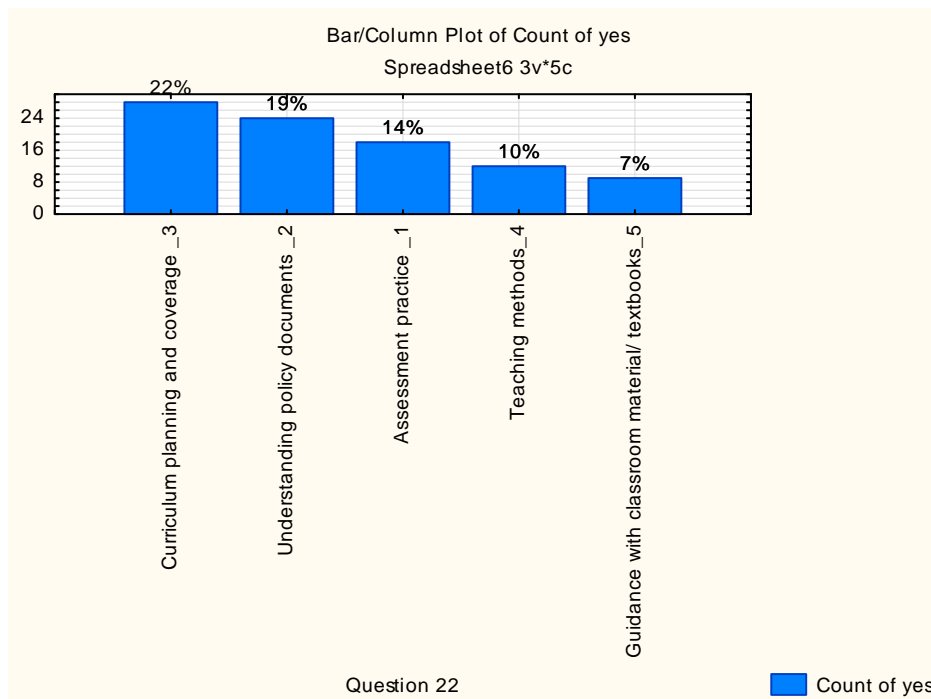


Figure 5.18: Frequency of focus areas of RNCS Afrikaans FAL training

Of the 42 (or 36%) of the teachers who indicated that they have attended in-service training in Question 21 (Figure 5.17), 22% of respondents regarded curriculum planning and coverage (code 3) as the focus of the training; 19% of respondents regarded understanding policy documents (code 2) as the focus of the training; 14% of respondents regarded assessment practice (code 1) as the focus of the training; 10% of the respondents regarded teaching methods (code 4) as the focus of the training; and 7% of the respondents regarded guidance with classroom material/textbooks (code 5) as the focus of the training. Based on this data, it seems as if the primary focus was on assisting the teachers with their planning and introducing them to strategies for covering the curriculum for each grade in the available teaching time. Next, the focus was understood to be on the teachers' understanding of the content of the policy documents. Practical issues relating to the actual teaching of the additional language such as assessment practices, teaching methods and the use of classroom materials and textbooks were focused on to a lesser extent.

Young (2001) is of the opinion that this approach may have caused the teachers to be overwhelmed by the complexity of the new curriculum. This resulted in the teachers focusing

so much on the requirements for learners in the form of tasks that their teaching became task-oriented instead of syllabus-oriented. Shulman (1987) emphasises that knowledge of the curriculum is much more than knowledge of syllabi; it should also include knowledge of the resources and skills to develop schemes of work. Teachers should have a combination of knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy, which is known as pedagogical content knowledge or PCK (see 2.4). It seems as if these training sessions neglected to broaden the teachers' knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy.

Question 23

Who provided the training?

Of the 48 or 36% of teachers who indicated that they have attended in-service training in Question 21 (Figure 5.17), 40 of the respondents indicated that the training was provided by WCED officials (code 1) (see Appendix J.27). In 6 of the cases the training was provided by NGOs or other INSET providers (code 3). Only one teacher indicated that both the school management team members (code 2) and the WCED officials (code 1) offered the training. According to the data, no training was facilitated by the universities (code 4).

Question 24

Approximately how long (in days) was this in-service training in total?

According to the data collected the average duration of the in-service training was 5 days in total.

Question 25

In which year/s did the training mentioned in 21 take place?

Most of the training took place between 2000 and 2010.

Question 26

Have you been able to implement the training indicated in 21?

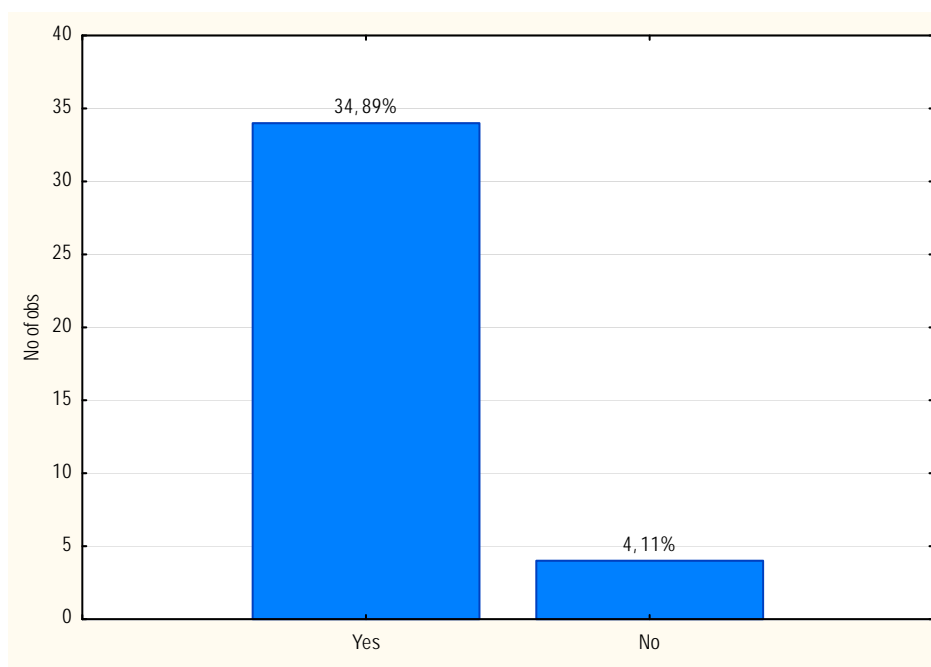


Figure 5.19: *Distribution of implementation of RNCS training*

Of the 48 or 36% of the teachers who indicated in Question 21 (Figure 5.17) that they have attended in-service training, 38 answered this question. The vast majority (34 or 89%) of the respondents indicated that they are able to implement the RNCS training specifically aimed at Afrikaans FAL. Only 4 or 11% of the respondents are of the opinion that they are not able to implement the training.

Question 27

What support or training in Afrikaans FAL is in your opinion still most needed?

The teachers' responses addressed various areas where they still experience a need for support. The support that teachers need most is the provision of more and appropriate Afrikaans teaching materials and resources. The teachers emphasised the need for these materials and resources to be age appropriate and pitched at the learners' proficiency levels in order to make these texts more accessible for the learners. This is very well illustrated in the following statements shared by the teachers.

"Meer leermiddels in Afrikaans"

“Schools need resources e.g.: reading books”

“HAT verklarende woordeboeke. Tweektalige woordeboeke. Digbundels Leesreekse.”

“Good resources; age-appropriate textbooks; reading material.”

“Leesboeke wat pas by die kind se vlak is 'n groot en baie belangrike vereiste”.

There is also a need for more support from the WCED with regard to the provision of official documentation in Afrikaans and on-going support from the curriculum advisors, as is illustrated by the following responses of the teachers:

“Werkskedules slegs in Engels beskikbaar.”

“WCED, should provide more ongoing support”

“Work schedules are available in English only.”

“Examples of lesson plans/programmes and work schedules.”

“Nie genoegsame materiaal vir onderwyser. Alle werkskemas is aan skole gestuur behalwe Afrikaans.”

According to the teachers, there is also a great need for training in various areas of Afrikaans FAL teaching. The teachers' responses are an indication that they feel the WCED does not provide sufficient in-service training to Afrikaans FAL teachers to equip them to teach and deliver the Afrikaans FAL curriculum effectively.

“Regular training in all aspects. Focus is usually on English.”

“Continuous support throughout the year from knowledgeable curriculum advisors”.

“Hoe om die vak aan te bied”

“Understanding of how an additional language is acquired. Hearing, speaking, reading – which is right, efficient??”

“Opleiding aan onderwysers in voorheen benadeelde skole.”

“Inligting wat spesifiek gerig is op Afrikaans Add Taal leerders vir wie Afr soms 'n 2de Add is.”

“Hoe om leerders te onderrig Afrikaans hul derde taal, maar op skool is dit hul EAT.”

“Om leerders by te staan in grammatika en skryf aktiwiteite.”

“Afrikaans as a FAL needs as much support as presently given to Lit and Num.”

“Lesbeplanning en uiteensetting.”

“Assessering en Beplanning”

“Assessment and intervention”

Hoe om die leerling aan te moedig om die taal aan te leer

Hoe motiveer jy leerders om Afrikaans te leer/praat/lees?

Even though the majority (62%) of these teachers have 11 or more years' experience in teaching Afrikaans FAL (see Question 15), there is a strong plea from them for support in the form of appropriate materials and in-service training from the WCED. The vast majority (74%) of these teachers' highest qualification in FAL methodology is a diploma (see Question 19a), which most of them obtained before 1995 (see Question 19b). The implication of these data is that, unless these teachers have attended in-service training workshops on recent developments in FAL methodology, they will not be informed about new FAL teaching methodologies and strategies, which may have a negative impact on their teaching of the FAL. 64% of the teachers indicated that they have never attended any in-service short courses that were specifically aimed at the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL (see Question 21); while in Question 28 82% of the teachers said that the WCED does not provide in-service training or information on developments in additional language methodology.

Question 28

Does the department provide in-service training/information regarding developments in additional language methodology?

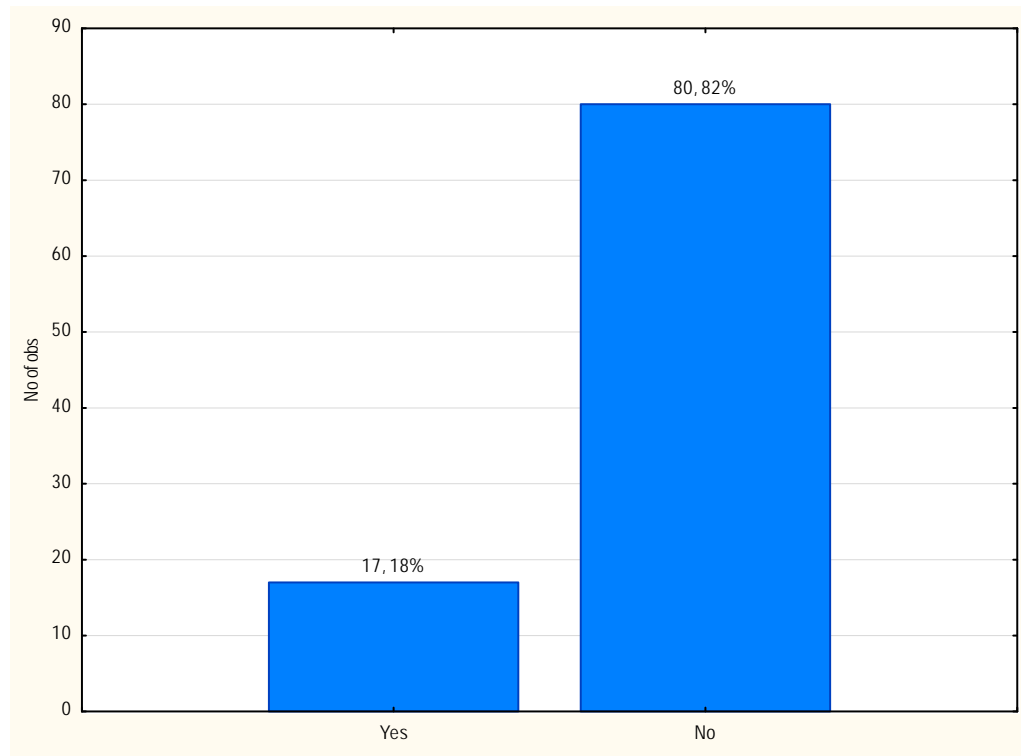


Figure 5.20: *Distribution of in-service training/information regarding developments in additional language methodology*

According to the distribution, the overwhelming majority (80 or 82%) of respondents indicated that the department (WCED) does not provide in-service training or information regarding developments in additional language methodology. There is a strong correlation between the results of this question (Question 28) and the teachers' responses to Question 27.

The data indicate that there is a need for the WCED to provide more support on different levels to the teachers of Afrikaans FAL. As discussed in Chapter 3 (3.2.3), it is important that teachers receive sufficient support from their institutions, in this case the school and department, for new policies to change practice (McLaughlin 1998). Cuban (1995: 4-11) supports McLaughlin's view and believes that a well-defined curriculum does not necessarily determine what is taught and learned in the classroom. According to the report (Department of Education 2009: 13) of the task team that reviewed the RNCS, "the teacher training was superficial and failed to clarify the points of departure and newness of the RNCS; neither did it address the cry for training in subject/learning area content". Based on the responses to

Question 27, the teachers are asking for in-service training in the field of new developments in FAL, especially Afrikaans FAL, strategies and methodologies.

Question 29

Rate your own proficiency in Afrikaans in relation to each of the following:

Question 29.1

Listening and understanding

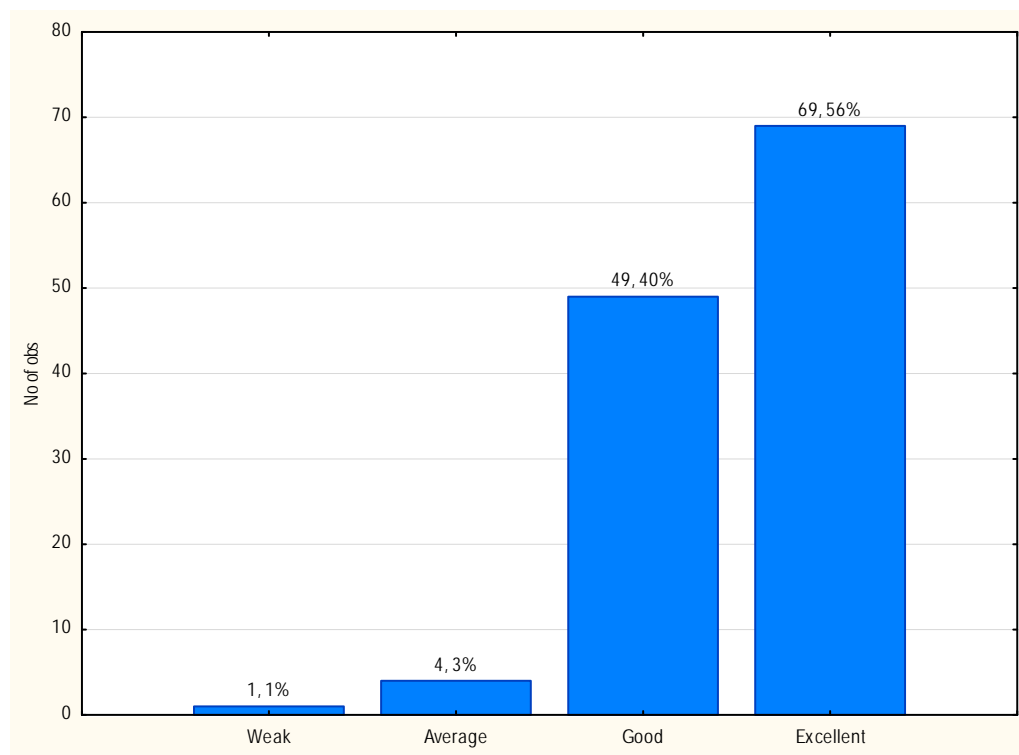


Figure 5.21: *Distribution of teachers' own proficiency in listening and understanding*

According to the distribution, 69 or 56% of Afrikaans FAL teachers rated their own listening and understanding skills as excellent (code 4). 49 or 40% of the respondents rated their proficiency in listening and understanding as good (code 3). Only one of the teachers considered his/her listening and understanding skills as weak (code 1) and 4 or 3% teachers regarded their proficiency in listening and understanding as average (code 2).

Section 3.6.2 discusses in detail the teacher's level of proficiency in the language that he/she is teaching. Norris (1999) states the teacher must be competent in all four macro skills, namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. The emphasis is on effective communication

in the classroom and for this to happen the teacher must be able to listen and understand the spoken language effectively.

Question 29.2

Reading aloud

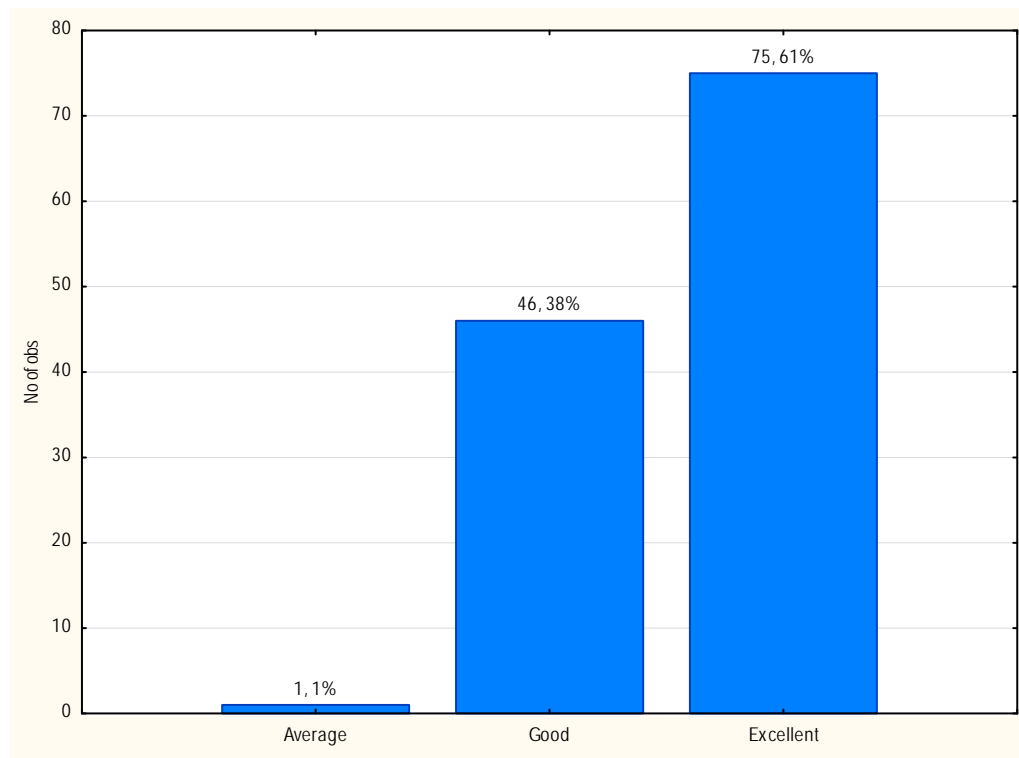


Figure 5.22: *Distribution of teachers' own proficiency in reading aloud*

According to the distribution, the majority (75 or 61%) of the teachers rated their own proficiency in reading aloud as excellent (code 4). 46 or 38% of the respondents indicated that their own proficiency in reading aloud is good (code 3). Only one teacher (1%) regarded his/her proficiency as average (2). None of the respondents rated their own proficiency in reading aloud as weak.

Even though Brown (2001) and others (Harley & Wedekind 2004; Department of Basic Education 2011; Asher 1977; Brown & McIntyre 1992) argue that the teacher's role has evolved into that of a facilitator and guide (see 3.6.2), the language teacher will still be expected to read aloud to the learners, whether it is instructions, poems or stories. The WCED (2012) encourages the teachers to scaffold reading aloud in the language classroom. This means the teacher must demonstrate how reading should be done; therefore the teacher should be able to read with accuracy and correct pronunciation and intonation. The

teacher's reading will also serve as an example to the learners as to what is expected from them when they have to read aloud. The teacher should at least be able to perform at the level expected from the learners, but preferably at a much higher level.

Question 29.3

Speaking

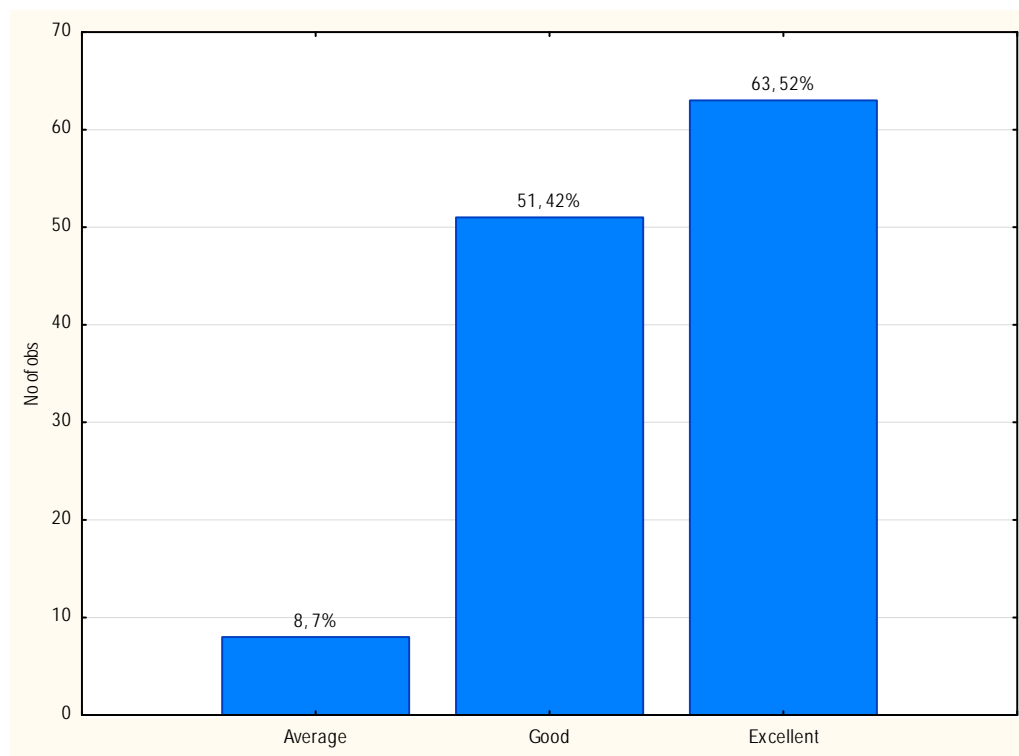


Figure 5.23: *Distribution of teachers' own proficiency in speaking*

According to the distribution, there is not a big difference between the number of respondents who indicated that they are excellent speakers of Afrikaans and those who indicated that they are good speakers of the target language. 63 or 52% of the teachers rated themselves as excellent speakers (code 4) and 51 or 42% of the respondents regarded themselves as good speakers of Afrikaans (code 3). Only eight or 7% of the teachers indicated that they are average speakers (code 2). None of the teachers considered their Afrikaans speaking skills as weak (code 1).

Brown (2001) argues that some of the characteristics and expectations of CLT make it difficult for a non-native-speaking teacher, who is not very proficient in the target language, to teach effectively. Norris (1999: 45) is of the opinion, however, that the teacher need not be a native speaker of the target language, but should display a measure of proficiency which will

enable the teacher to use the language “confidently and competently in unpredictable situations” at the particular level that they are teaching it. According to Krashen’s (1982) input hypothesis, the learner will acquire the target language through exposure to massive comprehensible input, $i+1$. As most of the learners’ primary exposure to Afrikaans is in the FAL classroom (see Question 6.1 and Question 6.2), it is of great importance that the teacher is a proficient speaker of the target language.

Question 29.4

Reading with comprehension

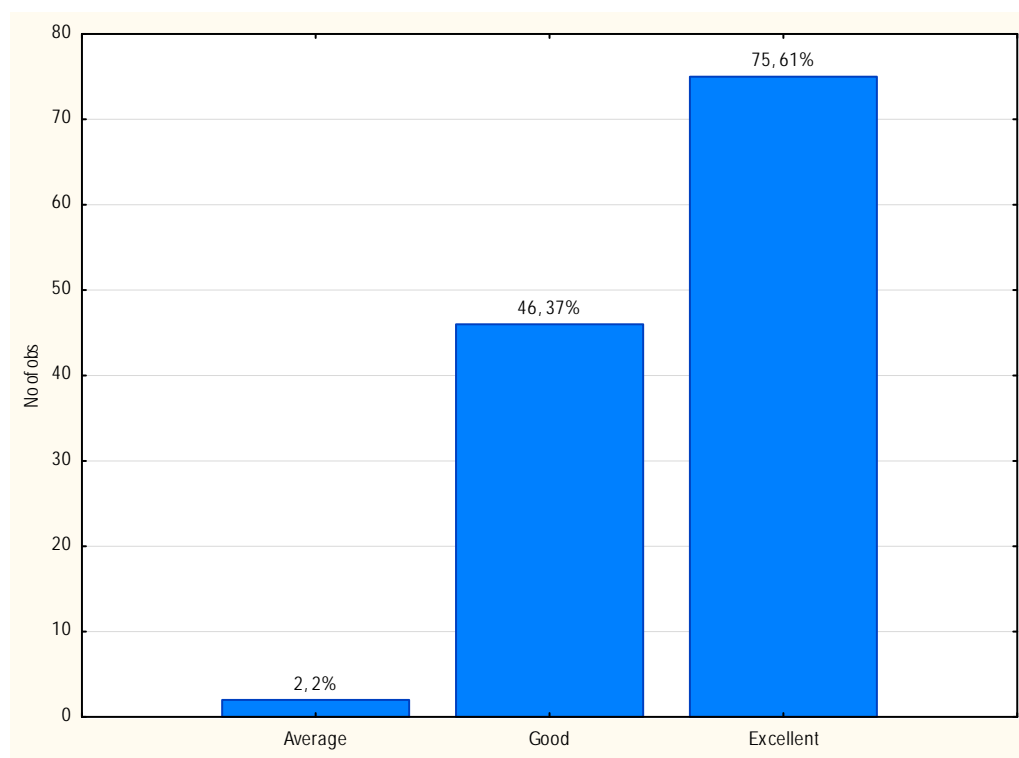


Figure 5.24: *Distribution of teachers’ own proficiency in reading with comprehension*

There is a correlation between the respondents’ proficiency in reading with comprehension and their proficiency in reading aloud (see Question 29.2). A majority (75 or 61%) of the teachers rated their level of reading with comprehension as excellent (code 4) and another 46 or 37% of the respondents regarded their proficiency in reading with comprehension as good (code 3). Only two or 2% of the teachers rated their proficiency in reading with comprehension as average (code 2) and none of the respondents regarded their ability to read with comprehension in Afrikaans as weak (code 1).

Reading with comprehension is of the utmost importance, not only when acquiring a language, but for all successful learning. In order for the language teacher to teach reading effectively, the teacher must be able to read with comprehension. According to Krashen and Terrel (1985: 20 - 21), comprehension precedes production, and therefore the learner must understand the input that he/she receives through listening and reading before he/she will be able to speak or write the language. Weaver (1998) argues that meaning should be put at the heart of reading from the start, and Freppon and Dahl (1998) agree that the emphasis should be on meaning during the reading process (see 3.4.4 and 3.6.1).

Question 29.5

Writing

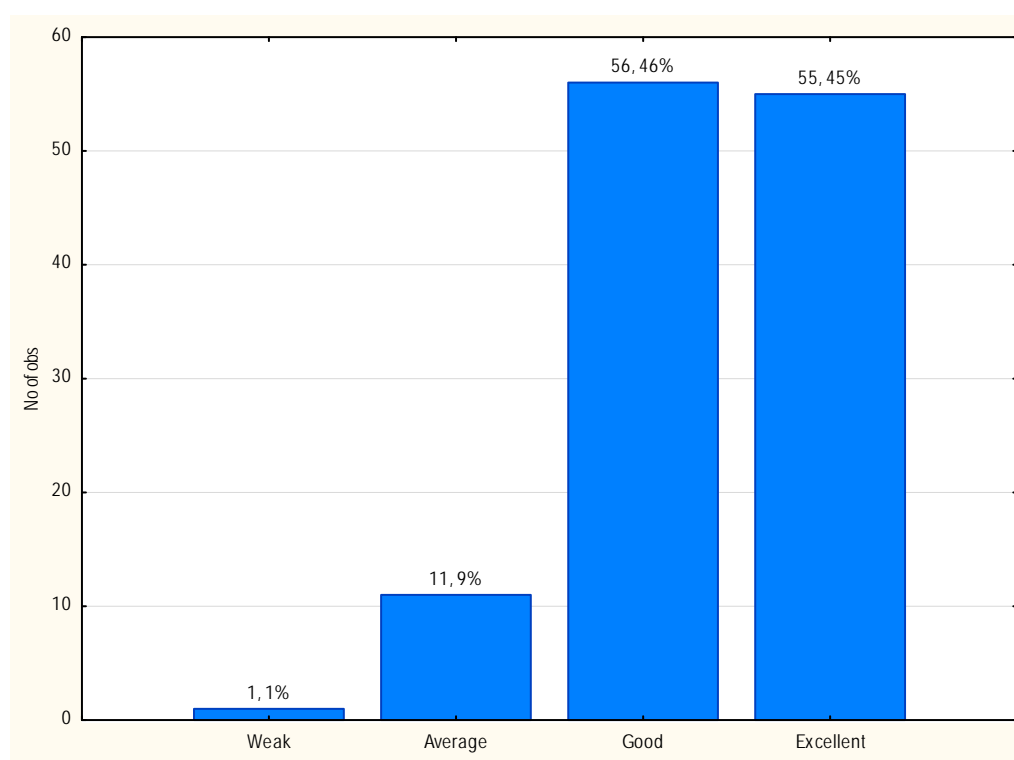


Figure 5.25: *Distribution of teachers' own proficiency in writing*

According to the distribution, there is little difference between the number of teachers who rated their proficiency in writing as excellent (code 4) and those who rated their proficiency in writing as good (code 3). 55 or 45% of the respondents rated their writing skills in Afrikaans as excellent (code 4) and 56 or 46% of the respondents rated their writing skills in Afrikaans as good (code 3). 11 or 9% of the teachers indicated that their proficiency in writing in Afrikaans is average (code 2) and one or 1% rated his/her proficiency in writing as weak.

As mentioned earlier in the discussions of Question 29.2 and Question 29.3, the language teacher should display a certain level of proficiency in all the macro skills of communication, of which writing is one. In order for the teacher to teach the learners how to write correctly, the teacher should be able to do so himself/herself.

As discussed in 3.4.5, effective language teachers should scaffold and support their learners in reading and writing by demonstrating, guiding and teaching them (Tomkins 1997). The WCED (2012), like Tomkins (1997), refer to the different levels of scaffolding, namely modelled writing, shared writing, interactive writing, guided writing and independent writing. The initial levels of this scaffolding require the teacher to demonstrate good writing to the learners.

Question 29.6

Grammatical accuracy

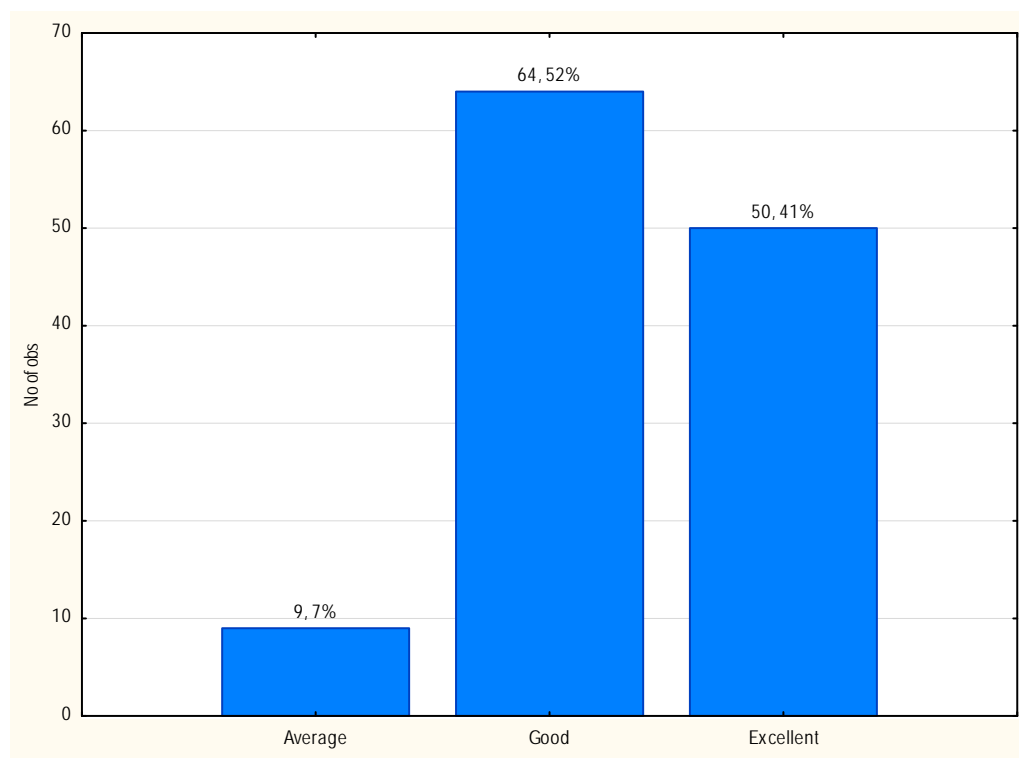


Figure 5.26: *Distribution of teachers' own proficiency in grammatical accuracy*

According to the distribution, more teachers regarded their own proficiency in grammatical accuracy as good than excellent. 64 or 52% of the respondents rated their grammatical accuracy as good (code 3) and 50 or 41% rated their grammatical accuracy as excellent.

Nine or 7% of the teachers rated their grammatical accuracy as average (code 2). None of the respondent regarded their grammatical accuracy as weak (code 1).

As discussed in 3.4.3 and 3.6.1, proficiency in a language is not only determined by the speaker's fluency in the language. Linguistic or grammatical accuracy is also an important component of proficiency. Norris (1999), Tedick and Tischer (1996), Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1972) and Palmer (1978) are all in agreement that there is too much emphasis on communication and too little on grammatical accuracy. Brown (2001) argues that fluency and accuracy are seen as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques. According to the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) for Afrikaans FAL LU 6: Taalstruktuur en –gebruik is just as important as the other learning outcomes. The CAPS (Department of Education 2011a, 2011b) for Afrikaans FAL identifies language structures and conventions as one of the four language skills that should be taught.

Question 30

Rate your enjoyment of teaching Afrikaans as a First Additional Language (FAL).

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.35), 56 or 45% of the teachers indicated that they always enjoy teaching FAL (code 1). Another 45 or 36% usually enjoy teaching FAL (code 2). 20 or 16% of respondent only sometimes enjoy teaching FAL (code 3) and two or 2% rarely enjoy teaching FAL (code 4). One teacher never enjoys teaching FAL (code 5).

According to Longstreet and Shane (1993) and Cuban (1995), the teacher's attitude has an impact on the learners' learning. Therefore, if the teacher does not enjoy teaching the subject, it will have a negative impact on the attitude of the teacher towards the teaching of the subject as well as the teacher's attitude towards the learners. This, in turn, may impact negatively on the learners' attitude towards and motivation to learn Afrikaans.

Question 31

What is the main reason for your response in question 30?

In most cases those teachers who indicated that they always enjoy teaching Afrikaans as FAL (Code 1) display an unconditional positive attitude towards, and love for, the language, the learners and teaching the subject. These teachers also have confidence in their teaching of Afrikaans and rate their own proficiency in the language highly. Below are some of their reasons for why they always enjoy teaching Afrikaans FAL:

"Afrikaans is my mother tongue."

"Ek is vol vertroue en voel bevoeg om Afrikaans te onderrig."

"Afrikaans is my first language and I love to share the passion for the language."

"Ek is lief vir die taal en ek wil dit graag met ander deel sodat hulle ook die mooiheid van die taal kan waardeer."

"It is fulfilling to see learners grasp their 2nd language as they do."

"My passie vir Afrikaans veral die letterkunde gedeeltes."

"Ek is volledig tweetalig en baie gemaklik om my leerder by te staan met die uitdagings van die vak."

"Afrikaans has so many rich and expressive words. It has definite rules which makes it an easy language to teach and understand."

"Omdat ek vanaf 'n Afrikaans agtergrond kom en die taal vlot praat geniet ek die onderrig daarvan terdeë. Die leerlinge vind dit moeilik aangesien die taal as diskriminerend gesien word."

"I have found it most rewarding and would love to teach FAL (Afr) only."

"Ek geniet my taal en dis 'n voorreg om die kinders te kan leer om dit te geniet en gebruik."

"It is my home language, therefore I can express myself very well."

"I like the challenge of teaching English-speaking children. I enjoy experiencing the progress in speaking and writing Afrikaans."

Although many of the teachers who indicated that they usually enjoy teaching Afrikaans as FAL (Code 2) display a positive attitude towards the language and teaching it, a few of these teachers lack motivation and passion for the teaching of the subject.

"Ek is nie mal oor tale nie."

"Dit is nie my gunsteling vak nie."

Other teachers in this group felt that the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans or their lack of proficiency in the language had an impact on the teachers' enjoyment of teaching the language.

"Depends on learners' involvement and enthusiasm in lesson."

"Die swak houding en belangstelling van leerders maak dit soms moeilik."

“Die leerders is nie entoesiasties nie, want die leermiddels se vlak is nie van toepassing op die leerders se vlak nie.”

“Dit is baie moeilik om Afrikaans te onderrig want die meeste van my leerders in die klas sukkel met die taal want dis hulle derde of vierde taal.”

“Die leerders is nie baie positief teenoor Afrikaans nie.”

“Ek is lief vir die taal. Ek het wel die negatiewe houding van die leerders as een van my grootste uitdaging in die vak gesien.”

Some teachers regarded external factors such as the unavailability of resources and a lack of support from the WCED as impacting negatively on their enjoyment of teaching Afrikaans as FAL.

“Lack of resources from the WCED makes it very hard to provide relevant text in order to teach “

“Struggle to find Gr 4 level Afrikaans reading material. The LOs and ASs are not appropriate.”

“More time needed to make it a daily affair.”

A number of the teachers who indicated that they only sometimes enjoy teaching FAL (Code 3) also felt that the lack of appropriate teaching material impacted negatively on their enjoyment of teaching Afrikaans.

“Die tekort aan leesmateriaal in ons skool.”

“Kinders is negatief, baie moeilik om leesboeke op hulle vlak te kry.”

Most of the teachers who only sometimes enjoy teaching FAL (Code 3) cited the learners' negative attitude and poor proficiency in the target language as the main reasons for their answer to Question 30.

“Ek sukkel om in Afr te disiplineer. Ek moet die hele tyd vertaal, anders verstaan die kinders nie wat ek sê nie.”

“Learners are not really enthusiastic about Afrikaans and lacks interest in the language.”

“Die kinders stel nie belang om Afrikaans te leer nie. Hulle is Xhosa sprekend. Boonop is discipline in die klaskamer moeilik by tye.”

"Many of the learners do not do well or participate due to their difficulty with the language."

"Children unresponsive."

"Jy moet by tye in die leerder se huistaal onderrig."

"Leerlinge se Afrikaanse taalvermoë is oor die algemeen baie laag. Leerlinge se belangstelling in Afrikaans is ook baie laag - wil nie!!"

A few teachers who only sometimes enjoy teaching FAL (Code 3) regarded their own lack of proficiency in Afrikaans as the main reason for their rating.

"Praat te min Afrikaans en is nie meer so vlot nie."

"Praat meestal Engels tuis."

"Nie huistaal nie."

"My huistaal is Engels."

"Find it difficult to communicate only in Afrikaans with the result that I speak English during the Afrikaans lessons."

All three teachers who indicated that they rarely enjoy teaching FAL (code 4) or never enjoy teaching FAL (code 5) referred to the learners' negative attitude towards the target language and the learners' lack of motivation to acquire Afrikaans as the main reasons for selecting code 4 to rate their enjoyment of teaching Afrikaans. One teacher shared the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans, as is evident from the next response.

"Afrikaans is a dying language and learners aren't interested in learning it. And... I don't blame them."

"Leerders stel glad nie belang om Afrikaans te leer nie. Het nie 'n liefde vir die taal."

"Leerlinge reageer baie negatief teenoor die taal."

5.2.3.1 Summary

This section dealt with different aspects of the Afrikaans FAL teachers, e.g. training, experience, language proficiency, attitudes and curriculum knowledge. The majority (47%) of the Grade 4 – 6 Afrikaans FAL teachers who participated in the research have English as their mother tongue and 35% of these teachers are Afrikaans speaking. A small majority of

the respondents mostly use Afrikaans with some English as medium of instruction in their Afrikaans classes and in 41% of the classes English and Afrikaans are used as medium of instruction in more or less equal amounts. It is of some concern to the researcher that only 4% of the teachers use only the target language to teach Afrikaans.

Most teachers have a three-year Diploma in Education qualification, with Afrikaans as subject up to third-year level. The overwhelming majority of teachers' highest qualification in FAL teaching is at diploma level. The majority of the teachers have 11 or more years' teaching experience as well as experience in teaching Afrikaans FAL. Despite the fact that 77% of the teachers completed their post-school education before 1995, the majority of them feel that the training prepared them adequately for teaching FAL. Most of these teachers have never attended any in-service training courses specific to the RNCS (curriculum at the time of data collection) for Afrikaans FAL. 89% of those teachers who did attend such courses are able to implement the training in their teaching. It is evident that the WCED provides very little, if any, in-service training with the focus on development in additional language methodologies.

The vast majority of the teachers rate their own proficiency in the different aspects of Afrikaans as excellent or good. It is only in the area of grammatical accuracy that more teachers rated their proficiency as good rather than excellent. The majority of the teachers enjoy teaching Afrikaans to different degrees, although three teachers rarely or never enjoy teaching Afrikaans.

5.2.4 National and regional language policy issues

This section deals with the teachers' knowledge and understanding of the current national and regional language policies that have an impact on the teaching of languages in the intermediate phase.

Question 32.1

How familiar are you with the official language policies of the Department of Basic Education?

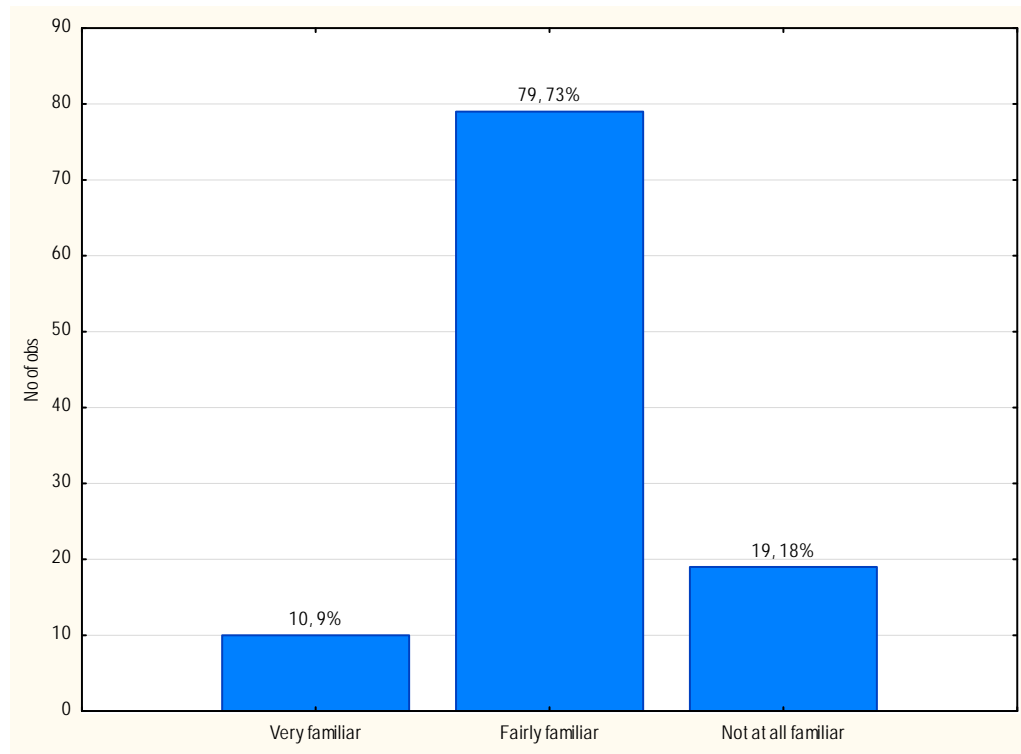


Figure 5.27: *Distribution of teachers' familiarity with Department of Basic Education language policies*

According to the distribution, only 10 or 9% of respondents are very familiar (code 1) with the official language policies of the DBE. A large majority (79 or 73%) of the teachers rated themselves as fairly familiar (code 2) with the DBE's language policies, whereas 19 or 18% indicated that they are not at all familiar with the relevant policies (code 3).

Question 32.2

How familiar are you with the official language policies of the WCED?

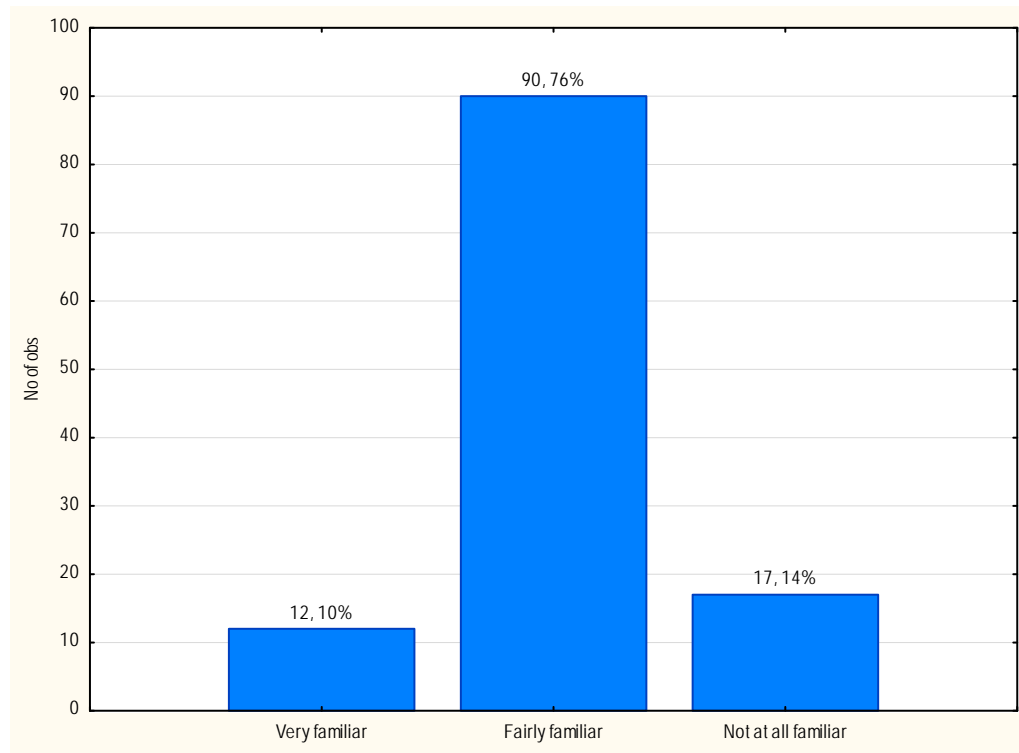


Figure 5.28: *Distribution of teachers' familiarity with WCED language policies*

There is a similarity between the teachers' responses to Question 32.1 and Question 32.2. In the case of Question 32.2, 12 or 10% of respondents rated themselves as very familiar (code 1) with the language policies of the WCED. As in the previous question, the vast majority (90 or 76%) of teachers indicated that they are fairly familiar (code 2) with the WCED language policies and 17 or 14% of respondents are not at all familiar with the language policies of the WCED.

In both cases the number of respondents who have indicated that they are not at all familiar (code 3) with the relevant policies is higher than the number of respondents who have indicated that they are very familiar with the language policies of both the DBE and the WCED.

As discussed in 3.2.3, McLaughlin (1998), Brook Napier (2011), Heugh (2002) and Kamwangamalu (2000) raised their concerns about the lack of implementation of the Language-in-Education Policy. They ascribe this situation to the government's inability to

ensure meaningful implementation of the LiEP in all schools. The researcher is of the opinion that teachers will not be able to implement the language policies of either the DBE or the WCED if they are not familiar with the content and expectations of these policies.

Question 33

In what ways do these policies influence your classroom practice?

The responses from the teachers to this question were varied and sometimes irrelevant. Very few of the respondents showed any knowledge of the policies and did not indicate the relevance of these policies to their teaching of FAL in the classroom. From the following responses from the teachers it is evident that the vast majority of respondents confused the language policies of the DBE and WCED with the RNCS and the FAL curriculum:

"Influences timetables, planning and Assessment wrt LOs & ASs."

"Beïnvloed beplanning, assesserings – eintlik alle aspekte van Taal onderrig."

"Make sure the LOs and assessment standards are kept in mind. Gives a guideline."

"Baie min. Ek hou net by al die LOs."

"Bepaal beplanning vir die jaar."

"It gives guidelines as to what I teach to my learners."

"These policies only influence the formal assessments completed by the learners, in terms of both quantity and their quality."

Question 34

It is currently compulsory for all learners to study at least one additional language at school. To what extent do you agree with this policy?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.38), the majority (63 or 53%) of respondents strongly agreed with the statement (code 1) and 48 or 40% of the teachers agreed with the statement (code 2). A small percentage of the respondents (9 or 8%) either were not sure (code 3), disagreed with the statement (code 4), or strongly disagreed with the statement (code 5). These results confirm that most teachers support the LiEP and the RNCS as well as CAPS, which state very clearly that all learners should study at least one additional language in the intermediate phase.

Question 35

Which of the following statements best reflect your beliefs?

The respondents could select one or more of the five statements (see Appendix J.39). Based on the data 36,04% of respondents agreed with statement 2 that South Africa is a multilingual/multicultural country and therefore everybody should know at least one other indigenous language. 33,33% of the teachers agreed with statement 5, which states that learning other languages is necessary for effective communication in a multilingual work environment. 26,58% of the teachers agreed that learning other languages contributes towards cognitive development; therefore it is good that learners have to learn more than one language (code 4). Five teachers or 2,25% indicated that statement 3 reflected their beliefs and agreed that the curriculum is already too full and learners should not have to learn more than one language. One of these five teachers also chose statement 2 and another two respondents also selected statement 1 to represent their views. Four teachers or 1,8% agreed that English is an international language and should therefore be the only language taught in South African schools (statement 1). As stated previously, two of these teachers who selected statement 1 also selected statement 3. It is clear from the data that the majority of the Afrikaans FAL teachers who participated in the research agreed that the learning of a FAL is advantageous to all learners.

5.2.4.1 Summary

The majority of the teachers indicated that they are fairly familiar with the language policies of the DBE (73%) and the WCED (76%). The teachers' responses to Question 33, however, are an indication that they do not have an in-depth knowledge or understanding of the content of the specific language policies. The majority of teachers are in agreement that learners should study at least one additional language at school, because of South Africa's multilingual and multicultural nature as well as the positive effect that language learning has on the learners' cognitive development.

5.2.5 School language policy

This section investigates whether urban primary schools in the Western Cape have school language policies and to what extent these policies are aligned with the national and provincial policies. The researcher also aimed to determine the level of teacher and parent participation in the formulation of the school language policies.

Question 36

Does your school have a language policy?

The great majority (105 or 88%) of respondents answered yes to this question (code 1) (see Appendix J.40). Only four or 3% of teachers indicated that their schools did not have a language policy (code 2) and 10 or 8% did not know whether their schools (code 3) have a language policy. According to these data, most of the schools represented in this research complied with the WCED Language Transformation Plan (WCED 2007a), which called on all schools to submit a comprehensive language policy to the department. Although most teachers indicated that their schools had a language policy in place, it is not clear whether these teachers know exactly what these policies entail, especially when we look at the results of Question 33.

Question 37

Is the school's language policy aligned to the WCED's Language Transformation Plan?

This question had to be answered by only those teachers who answered 'Yes' to Question 36 (see Appendix J.41). Once again an overwhelming 97 or 91% of respondents answered in the affirmative to this question (code 1), which indicated that their school's language policies were aligned to the WCED's Language Transformation Plan (see Appendix J.41). 10 or 9% of the teachers did not know (code 3) whether their school's language policies were aligned to the WCED's Language Transformation Plan. With reference to the answers the respondents gave to Question 33, the researcher is not convinced that these teachers are fully aware of what the requirements of the WCED Language Transformation Plan of 2007 are.

Question 38

Is the implementation of the language plan closely monitored by the school's management team?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.42), the vast majority (83 or 79%) of teachers answered 'yes' (code 1) to this question. This means that in the majority of schools that participated in the research the implementation of the language plan of the school is closely monitored by the school's management team. 8 or 8% for the respondents indicated that the language plan was not closely monitored (code 2) and a further 14 or 13% of teachers did

not know (code 3) whether the language plan was monitored by the management team or not.

Although it seems as if these data contradict the results of the Western Cape Language Survey on which Plüddeman (2002) reported and which revealed that only 8 out of 43 Western Cape primary schools had aligned their School Language Policy with the LiEP, the researcher takes cognisance of the fact that this question was not aimed at the content of the language policy of the school, but whether the implementation is being monitored. Sookrajh and Joshua (2009) are concerned about the lack of measures to ensure that meaningful implementation of the LiEP takes place in all schools (see 3.2.3).

Question 39

How does your school's language policy support the teaching of Afrikaans FAL?

As was the case in Question 33, it seems as if most respondents confused the school language policy with the RNCS and other curriculum documents for Afrikaans FAL. The following responses referred to the daily teaching of FAL, purchasing of learning materials, assessment and moderation. These details are not part of the LiEP or the school language policy.

"School policy aligned to WCED policy. School purchased textbooks. Continuous moderation of planning and assessments to ensure standards in all grades."

"Afr handboeke word aangekoop om die kinders aan te moedig en te help. Moderering word deurgans in alle grade gedoen."

"Blootstelling aan beskikbare leerstof. Bywoning van vergaderings-verplichtend."

"Bevorder letterkundige begrip in lyn met WKOD riglyne."

"We follow the guidelines. Our intermediate phase often meets to discuss suggestions and opinions and improvements."

"On assessment level. We comply with the number of assessments. Inclusive of learners' values and beliefs."

Only a few of the answers showed that the respondent had some understanding of the language policies.

"Taalbeleid ondersteun veeltaligheid en ondersteun beide Engels en Afrikaans as Huistaal en Eerste Addisionele Taal."

"Not really, because 100% of our classes are English classes, but there is a progress since FAL must be implemented from Grade 1."

“Die onderrig geskied binne die raamwerk van die skool se taalbeleid.”

“Very little support in additional language. Focus more on 1st language.”

There were also some responses which indicated that the teacher had some idea about what the language policies are about, but the answers were either very vague or they displayed some confusion between the language policies and the language curricula and assessment requirements.

“All pupils are taught Afr. as an FAL. Regular planning + LA meetings are held with teachers who teach Afr as an FAL.”

“Almal moet onderrig word in E.A.T. Neem deel aan kompetisies.”

“Die beleid self is nie duidelik tov ondersteuning nie. Individuele taal onderwysers verleen wel hul eie ondersteuningsplanne in hul toegewese klasse.”

“Planning schedules checked. Make resources available. Encourages multi-lingualism. Correct time allocated.”

“Baie goed.”

“Skakel goed in by mekaar.”

“Ten volle.”

“Our schools policy is mostly about English as First Language but it does help as far as what to assess is the Afrikaans as FAL as well.”

“Baie min ondersteuning.”

The above responses underline the researcher's concern about the teachers' lack of knowledge and understanding of the national, provincial and especially their own schools' language policies.

Question 40

*How much participation or influence did **teachers** at the school have in the formulation of the current school language policy?*

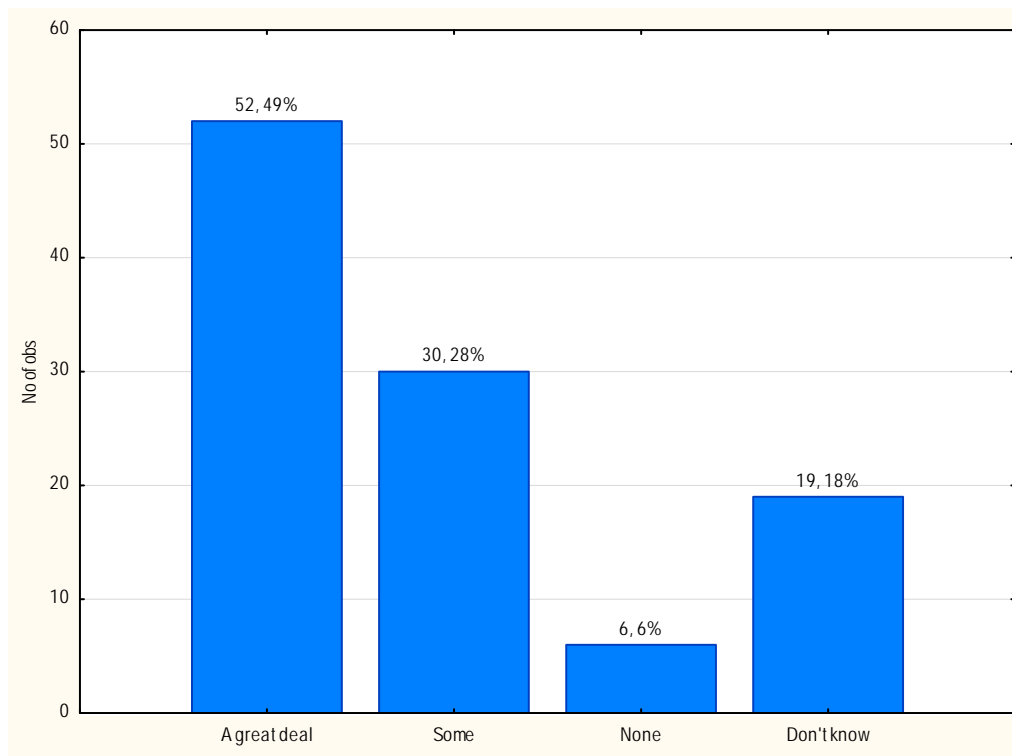


Figure 5.29: Distribution of teacher participation in formulating school language policy

According to the distribution, 52 or 49% of the teachers indicated that teachers had a great deal of participation (code 1) in the formulation of the current school language policy. 30 or 28% of respondents were of the opinion that teachers had only some participation (code 2) in formulating the current school language policy, whereas 6 or 6% of teachers stated that teachers had no participation (code 3) in the formulation of the school language policy. A total of 19 or 18% of respondents did not know (code 4) to what degree teachers had participated in this process. The reason for this “don’t know” response may be because the teacher was not teaching at that school when the school language policy was drafted or, if the teacher did not know about the process, it may mean that the teachers at that school were not involved in the process at all.

Although the LiEP (Department of Education 1997) and the NCS (2002) emphasise the importance of additional language teaching, it is of great importance that these requirements are written into the school language policy of each school. If teachers had a significant role to play in formulating their school’s language policy, they would have been informed about

the national and provincial language policies and knowledgeable about their own schools' language policy. This in turn could lead to a greater degree of implementation of the school language policy.

Question 41

*How much participation or influence did the **general parent body** have in decisions around the current language policy?*

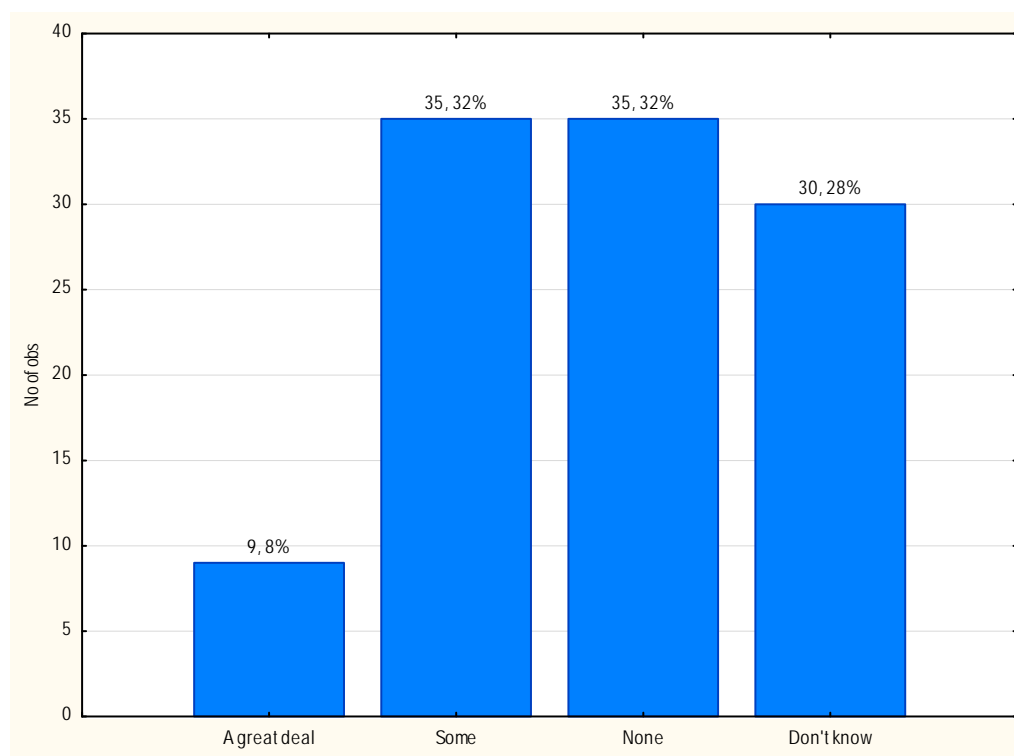


Figure 5.30: *Distribution of parent body participation in formulating school language policy*

According to the distribution, a minority of 9 or 8% of the teachers indicated that the general parent body had a great deal (code 1) of participation in decisions around the current school language policy. There was little difference between the number of responses to the other codes. 35 or 32% of respondents indicated that the parent body had some (code 2) participation or influence in decisions around the current language policy and the same number of respondents indicated that parents had no (code 3) participation in the process. 30 or 28% of teachers did not know (code 4) whether the parents had any input in the decisions around the school language policy.

The Language-in-Education Policy (Department of Education 1997) states that it is the duty of the governing body to determine which languages will be offered as languages of learning and teaching, and which additional languages will be offered as subjects. Therefore the general parent body should have a great deal of participation or influence in decisions around the school language policy. The data, however, indicate that this is not the case in most of the schools.

Question 42.1

In which grade does instruction in Afrikaans FAL start for exposure and informal oral communication only?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.45), 31 or 30% of the respondents indicated that at their schools Grade 1 learners are exposed to Afrikaans FAL for the first time in an informal way. In the majority of cases (41 or 40%) Afrikaans FAL is introduced in Grade 2 and 21 or 20% of teachers indicated that learners are introduced to Afrikaans FAL in an informal way in Grade 3. Only two or 2% of the respondents said that informal instruction in Afrikaans FAL starts in Grade R. 8 or 8% of the respondents indicated that informal instruction in Afrikaans FAL starts only in Grade 4. The reason why so few teachers indicated that Afrikaans FAL is introduced to learners in Grade R may be because not all schools had a Grade R class when the research was conducted.

According to the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c), the first additional language should be introduced very informally in Grade R. The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011b) states that the learners should be introduced to the first additional language in Grade 1. As this research was done while the RNCS was still the curriculum of the day, learners should have been exposed to Afrikaans as FAL in an informal way in Grade R. The data reflect that this happened in only 30% of cases. These data correspond with the findings of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education 2009) that most provinces introduce the FAL as subject only in Grade 3 and not in Grade 1, as suggested by the RNCS.

Question 42.2

In which grade does formal instruction, including reading and writing, start?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.46), a majority (57 or 56%) of respondents indicated that formal instruction in Afrikaans FAL starts in Grade 3. In 16 or 16% of the cases formal instruction in Afrikaans FAL starts in Grade 2. Six or 6% of the teachers indicated that

Grade 1 learners are introduced to formal instruction in their FAL and one teacher reported that formal instruction in the FAL starts in Grade R. A fairly large number of teachers (22 or 22%) stated that formal instruction in Afrikaans FAL starts in Grade 4.

In the section of the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c: 52) that discusses the first additional language in detail, the teaching of the FAL is divided into three phases, namely: Starting out – Grade R and Grade 1; Making progress – Grade 2; and Consolidating progress – Grade 3. According to the data collected, formal instruction in the FAL starts only in Grade 3 in the majority of Western Cape urban schools. This would make “consolidating progress” very difficult, if not impossible.

5.2.5.1 Summary

The vast majority (83%) of teachers indicated that their schools have a school language policy and 91% of these respondents agreed that their schools’ language policies are aligned with the requirements of the WCED Language Transformation Plan, but their responses to Question 42 indicate that it is not the case. Informal teaching of Afrikaans FAL starts in Grade 2 in most schools and the formal teaching of Afrikaans FAL is introduced only in Grade 3 in most cases. These practices are not in alignment with the LiEP, WCED Language Transformation Plan or RNCS requirements. In 79% of the cases the implementation of the school language policy is closely monitored by the school management team. The teachers’ responses to Question 39 are an indication that the majority of the teachers do not have a clear understanding of the purpose and content of the school language policy. Although the teachers did have a great deal of participation and influence in the formulation of their schools’ language policies, the parent bodies had very little or no participation or influence in this process. It may be that on paper the schools’ language policies are in place, but the prescribed processes were not strictly followed, nor are the prescriptions of national and regional policies implemented in practice.

5.2.6 Instructional timetable

This section deals briefly with the time allocation on the school timetable for Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase (Grades 4 - 6). The RNCS (the curriculum at the time of the data collection) did not allocate specific minimum hours to the teaching of the FAL, whereas the CAPS prescribe the number of hours that should be spent on the teaching of the FAL.

Question 43

How many hours of instruction per week are allocated to Afrikaans FAL for the intermediate phase?

According to the responses of the teachers, an average of 3 hours per week are allocated to Afrikaans FAL. The minimum number of hours allocated to Afrikaans FAL was recorded as one and a half hours per week and three teachers indicated that at their schools six, eight and nine hours were allocated to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL. As these hours are more than the total time allocated to the Languages component of the timetable, the responses may be an indication that these teachers misinterpreted the question and reported on the total number of hours spent on language teaching.

According to the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a), 25% of the total weekly teaching time should be spent on teaching languages. This comes to about 6½ hours per week. Unfortunately there is no indication to the school how it should divide these hours between the different language levels. The Foundations for Learning (Department of Education 2008) states that for two days of the week 1½ hour per day should be spent on teaching the FAL, which comes to a total of 3 hours per week. The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) prescribes that 5 hours per week should be spent on the teaching of the FAL in Grades 4 – 6. This is 2 hours per week more than the average number of hours teachers indicated they are teaching Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase.

Krashen and Tyrrell (1983) (see 3.4.4) are of the opinion that sufficient exposure to the target language through listening and reading is necessary to acquire the language. Acquiring a new language is a slow process which requires a lot of time. As is evident from the teachers' responses to Question 5 and Question 6, the majority of learners are not sufficiently exposed to Afrikaans outside the language classroom; therefore it is of the utmost importance that the recommended or prescribed teaching hours for FAL should be adhered to and used optimally for the teaching of the language.

Question 44

How much more time per week do you think should be allocated to Afrikaans FAL for the intermediate phase?

According to the distribution, the majority of teachers (37 or 43%) indicated that one more hour (code 1) should be added to the time they already have on the timetable for Afrikaans FAL. 19 or 22% of respondents were satisfied with the time they have for Afrikaans FAL and

do not think that they need any more time (code 0). The teachers who selected this option indicated under Question 43 that they already have between 2½ and 4 hours of teaching time for Afrikaans FAL. Another 15 or 17% of teachers would like to have between one and two hours more teaching time. 8 or 9% of teachers felt that another 2 to 3 hours (code 3) should be added to the existing time on the timetable for FAL. All 7 or 8% of respondents who indicated that more than three hours (code 4) should be added to the existing time on the timetable indicated in Question 43 that they already have three hours of teaching time for Afrikaans FAL.

Question 45

If you think more time is required, what would you use this additional time for?

The majority of teachers mentioned the need for more time to develop and improve the learners' reading skills. A distinction was made between the skill of reading aloud with accuracy and the correct intonation and pronunciation, and the ability to read with comprehension. Many teachers also grouped reading and writing together.

"Hardoplees of selfs klankvaslegging. Leerders in graad 7 ken nie die uitspraak van sekere klanke nie, daarom sukkel hulle om te spel."

"Reading aloud from an age-appropriate book."

"Reading - small group guided reading; teach reading skills - decoding words; pronunciation: etc."

"Reading for enjoyment"

"Lees en begrip vaardighede."

"Reading and writing activities"

"Lees en Skryf!!"

"Lees (hardop) en skryf (stories)"

Another aspect that many of the teachers would like to spend more time on is the improvement of the learners' oral proficiency.

"Basiese taalvaardighede. Aanleer van nuwe woorde en klanke."

"More oral work"

“Orals - including poetry and singing. Making their own games to improve vocabulary”

“Meer geleentheid vir mondeling werk”

“Praat, praat, praat!!”

“Praat werk, woordeskat uitbreiding”

A few of the teachers indicated that they would spend the additional time to teach and consolidate grammar and language structures, catch up on assessments, or do remedial activities with those learners who need it.

“Vir meer konsep konsolidasie.”

“Language, Sentence Construction.”

“Ekstra taalleer lesse!”

“Taaloefening en skryfwerk.”

“Om al die assesserings klaar te maak”

“Om remediërende werk met leerders te doen.”

Only three teachers mentioned that the extra time would give the learners more exposure to the language and that fun activities during that time could contribute to the learners' enjoyment while learning the language.

“Reading, singing songs. Teaching them to enjoy the language!”

“More time to expose learners to the language.”

“Meer blootstelling aan die taal. Baie leerders praat nie Afrikaans tuis nie en dus is al die Afrikaans wat hulle hoor op skool.”

“Hearing Afr being spoken; developing own plays.”

5.2.6.1 Summary

The RNCS (the curriculum at the time of the data collection) does not prescribe specific hours for FAL teaching. Based on the data collected, the majority of teachers have more or less three hours per week for the teaching of Afrikaans FAL, which is half the time allocated to the Languages learning area. There are, however, also schools where learners receive only one hour's teaching of the FAL. Most teachers indicated that they will need more time to teach the FAL. The new curriculum, CAPS, does prescribe that five hours per week should

be set aside for the teaching of the FAL. Based on the teachers' feedback, their teaching will definitely benefit from the five hours for FAL that CAPS prescribes. The additional time will benefit the learners, provided the teachers make use of effective methodologies and strategies in their teaching of the FAL.

5.2.7 Curriculum planning and delivery

This section investigates to what extent the teachers are guided by the national curriculum and other official documents in the planning of teaching programmes and delivery of Afrikaans FAL lessons. At the time when the data were collected, the curriculum of the day was the RNCS, supported by the Foundations for Learning and work schedules provided by the WCED.

Question 46

*When planning your teaching programme for Afrikaans FAL each year, which official document (e.g. RNCS) do you **mainly** use?*

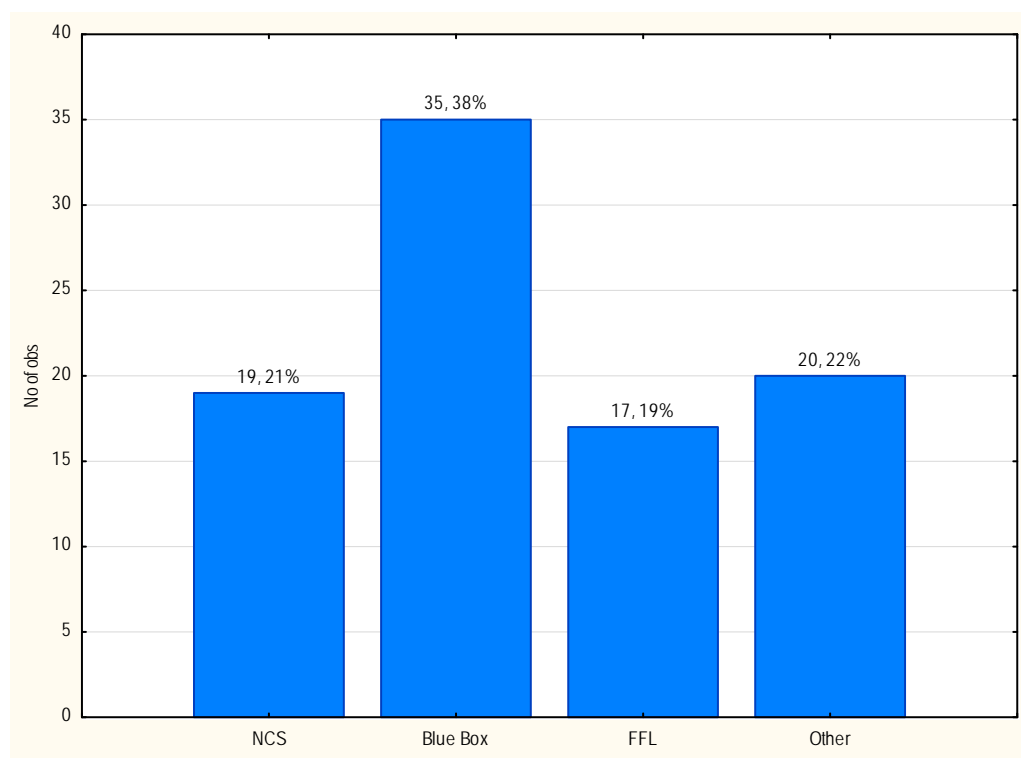


Figure 5.31: Distribution of official documents used in planning

According to the distribution, the majority of teachers (35 or 38%) use the WCED Work Schedules or Blue Boxes (code 2) as their main planning resource. There is little difference between the teachers' use of the other resources for planning. 19 or 21% of respondents

indicated that they use the RNCS (code 1) as their major planning document, whereas 17 or 19% of the teachers mainly use the Foundations for Learning (code 3). The remaining 20 or 22% of the teachers indicated that they mainly use other (code 4) resources to plan their teaching programmes for Afrikaans FAL. These 20 respondents mentioned that they use a number of other resources, e.g. the learning programmes from textbooks, newspapers, magazines and a combination of different resources to plan their FAL teaching programmes.

“Examples provided in textbooks to make planning easier, structured according to the way in which it is set/laid out in that particular textbook.”

“Werk volgens die handboek.”

“Leer program uit handboek gebaseer op LU en Assesseringstandaarde.”

These teachers may find it easier to work according to the planning and sequence provided in the textbooks, but there is no guarantee that all curriculum requirements are addressed in these textbooks. When the RNCS was introduced, the DoE or provincial education departments did not screen all textbooks to ensure that the contents comply with the requirements of the national curriculum, as is the case with textbooks written for CAPS

Question 47

How familiar are you with the RNCS requirements for Afrikaans FAL teaching?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.48), the vast majority (84%) of the teachers acknowledged that they are fairly familiar (code 2) with the RNCS requirements for Afrikaans FAL teaching. Only 12 or 10% of the teachers indicated that they are very familiar (code 1) with the requirements for Afrikaans FAL teaching as set out in the RNCS. 7 or 6% of the respondents admitted that they are not at all familiar (code 3) with the content of the RNCS requirements for Afrikaans FAL teaching.

As discussed under 2.4, Shulman (1987) identified teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, e.g. knowledge of syllabi, as one of the five major sources for their knowledge base. If teachers do not know exactly what the curriculum requirements for the subject they teach are, what will guide and inform their planning and selection of texts and activities?

The implementation of any new curriculum is dependent on the teachers who will implement it (see 3.3.1). Teachers therefore have to be familiar with the content of the curriculum in order to make sense of it (Yero 2010). What the teachers eventually choose to teach when

they are alone in their classrooms becomes the taught curriculum (Cuban 1995) and may deviate from the actual approved curriculum.

Question 48

*To what extent do you implement the **Learning Outcomes** of the RNCS in your lesson planning and presentation?*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.49), there is little difference between the number of teachers who selected 'always' (code 1) and 'most of the time' (code 2). 47 or 39% of the respondents indicated that they always implement the Learning Outcomes (LOs), whereas a slightly higher number of respondents (50 or 41%) implement the LOs most of the time. 10 or 16% of the teachers are trying to implement the LOs, but struggle to do so (code 3) and 3 or 2% only sometimes implement the LOs (code 4). 2 or 2% of the teachers never implement the LOs in their lesson planning and presentation.

Question 49

*To what extent do you implement the **Assessment Standards** of the RNCS in your lesson planning and presentation?*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.50), there is a correlation between the respondents' answers to Question 48 and Question 49. As in Question 48, there is little difference between the number of teachers who selected 'always' (code 1) and 'most of the time' (code 2). 43 or 36% of the teachers indicated that they always implement the Assessment Standards (AS) of the RNCS in their lesson planning and presentation, whereas, as in Question 48, a slightly higher number of respondents (46 or 39%) implement the ASs most of the time. 26 or 22% (which is 16 more than in Question 48) of the teachers are trying to implement the ASs, but struggle to do so (code 3) and 3 or 3% only sometimes implement the ASs (code 4).

As discussed in 3.3.3, a good curriculum should be written in such a way that the teachers will be able to understand it. The curriculum should also provide guidance for the teachers in order to support their teaching (Hoadley and Jansen 2009).

A possible reason why so many teachers do not implement the LOs and ASs of the RNCS all the time, as reflected in the answers to Question 48 and Question 49, may be found in the Report of the Task Team for the Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education 2009). According to this report, the training of teachers was superficial and "failed to clarify the points of departure and newness of the RNCS,

neither did it address the cry for training in subject/learning area content” (Department of Education 2009:13). Another weakness of the implementation of the RNCS was the fact that most provinces introduced the FAL as a subject only in Grade 3 and not in Grade 1, as was suggested in the RNCS. This would make it almost impossible for the intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teacher to adhere to the LOs and ASs requirements for Grades 4 - 6 of the RNCS, as the learners would not yet have reached the required levels of proficiency in the target language.

Question 50

*How much influence do you have over selecting the **content** of the additional language you teach?*

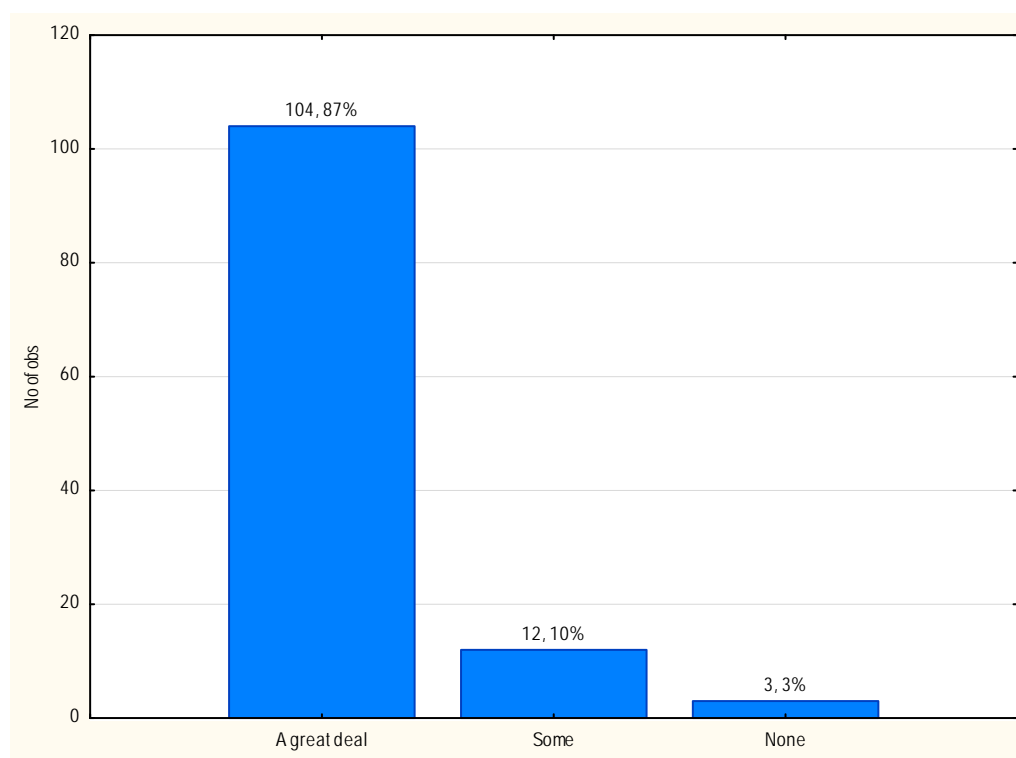


Figure 5.32: Distribution of teachers' influence over selection of the FAL content

According to the distribution, the vast majority (104 or 87%) of the respondents indicated that they have a great deal (code 1) of influence over selecting the content of the additional language that they teach. 12 or 10% of the respondents have some influence (code 2) and 3 or 3% have no influence in selecting the content of what they teach in the Afrikaans FAL classroom.

The RNCS was not very prescriptive about the exact content that had to be taught in each grade, but it did include lists of content with regards to grammatical structures, reading texts and types of writing texts that the learners should produce in every grade. As discussed in 2.4 and 3.6, Nunan (1987) is convinced that teachers should be sensitive to what is happening in their classes and through their teaching bring about a change in their learners' proficiency in the target language. The content selected by the teachers should therefore be in line with the learners' language needs. Richards (1998) is of the opinion that in selecting content the teacher should have a deep understanding of the subject matter and think about the subject matter from the learner's perspective. In this way the content or subject matter will become more accessible to the learners.

The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) is much more prescriptive with regards to the content that needs to be taught. The content in the approved textbooks has also been aligned with the requirements of the CAPS documents. It is assumed that if the teachers use one of the approved textbooks for Afrikaans FAL, they do not have to search for and select content to teach on their own any longer. Everything they need to teach is provided in the textbook, class reader, graded readers and teacher's guides.

5.2.7.1 Summary

The teachers use a variety of official curriculum documents to plan their Afrikaans FAL programmes and lessons, and the majority of the teacher rated themselves as fairly familiar with the content of the RNCS. The majority of these teachers align their teaching with the learning outcomes and assessment standards as prescribed in the RNCS, but feel that they still have the freedom to select the content of what they teach in the Afrikaans FAL class themselves.

5.2.8 Teaching methodology

This section deals with the language teaching methodologies that the Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools implement in their FAL classrooms.

Question 51

To what extent do you as an individual have the freedom to decide on the teaching methodology used in your Afrikaans FAL classroom?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.52), the overwhelming majority (103 or 87%) of teachers indicated that they have a great deal (code 1) of freedom to decide on the methodology they use in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. Another 14 or 12% of teachers indicated that they have some (code 2) freedom to decide on the teaching methodology they implement in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, and 2 or 2% of the respondents felt that they have no (code 3) freedom in deciding on the methodology they use in teaching of Afrikaans FAL.

Although the RNCS does not prescribe a specific methodology for FAL teaching, it does recommend the integration of the language skills and a thematic approach (Department of Education 2002: 7-8).

As discussed in 3.4, the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a), CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) and the Western Cape Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (Western Cape Education Department 2006) subscribe to the constructivist and social constructivist theories of learning and therefore regard the learners as active participants in the learning process. Teachers should therefore move away from the concept of passive learning advanced by behaviourism in the past, which implied that teachers transmitted knowledge to the learners. According to Widdowson (1990: 159), the communicative approach provides for a learner-centred way of teaching, where the emphasis is on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds. The content of a language course is now defined not in terms of forms, words and sentence patterns, but in terms of the concepts, or notions, which such forms are used to express, and the communicative functions which they are used to perform.

The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a and 2011b) provide some guidance and support to teachers with regard to language teaching methodology and suggests a text-based and communicative approach to the teaching of the first additional language. So in future the teachers will not have much freedom to choose any methodology they wish or are most familiar with to teach Afrikaans FAL. There are prescriptions in place which are explained in both the CAPS FAL documents and the teachers' guides to the textbooks. During the CAPS training of teachers in the Western Cape (Western Cape Education Department 2012) teachers were informed that the balanced language approach (BLA) (see 3.4.5) must be followed in the Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Question 52

How important do you consider the following aspects to be for effective additional language teaching and learning in the classroom?

Question 52.1: *Listening with understanding*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.53), a large majority (93 or 76%) of respondents regarded listening with understanding as very important (code 3) for effective additional language teaching and learning in the classroom. 29 or 24% of the teachers indicated that listening with understanding is important (code 2) for effective FAL teaching and learning. No teachers regarded listening with understanding as not important (code 1).

As discussed in 3.4.3 and 3.4.4, learners acquire an additional language by listening to comprehensible input in the target language. During the initial stages of acquisition meaning is given priority over form (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011). This input can come from the teacher, but learners are also exposed to input from their peers when they share information during pair and group work. Learners co-construct meaning while engaging in interaction. Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis claims that learners acquire language by understanding input that is a little beyond their current level of competence. In order to communicate effectively, the learners must understand what is said to them in the target language in order to produce an appropriate response.

During the Afrikaans FAL teacher training sessions for CAPS (Western Cape Education Department 2012) the emphasis was on the balanced language approach (BLA). The WCED training manual (Western Cape Education Department 2012) focuses on the teaching of reading while integrating all the language skills. No mention is made of the initial development of listening and speaking as very important language skills in the FAL.

Question 52.2: *Speaking fluently*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.54), a great majority (77 or 64%) of teachers regarded speaking fluently as important (code 2), but not important enough to answer that it was very important (code 3). 35 or 29% of the respondents indicated that speaking fluently is very important (code 3) for effective FAL teaching and learning. A small number (9 or 7%) of teachers were of the opinion that speaking fluently is not important (code 1) for effective FAL teaching and learning.

As discussed in 3.4.3 and 3.4.4, fluency comes with practice and time. Krashen and Tyrrell (1983) argue that fluency cannot be taught directly, but emerges as learners build up

competence through understanding the input to which they are exposed. Brown (2001) warns, however, that fluency should never be encouraged at the expense of clear, unambiguous communication. Fluency and accuracy are complementary aspects underlying communicative competence and at times fluency is more important to encourage the learner to remain meaningfully engaged. CLT places a stronger focus on fluency in order to develop the communicative competence of the FAL learners and suggests that grammatical structures should rather be subsumed under various functional categories and grammatical rules should be taught in an indirect manner.

Question 52.3: *Reading and viewing*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.55), there was no clear distinction between the number of teachers who regard reading and viewing as important and very important. 57 or 47% of teachers indicated that reading and viewing are important (code 2) for effective FAL teaching and learning, whereas slightly more teachers (64 or 53%) regard reading and viewing as very important (code 3) for effective teaching and learning of the additional language. No teachers regard reading and viewing as not important (code 1).

Reading and viewing are Learning Outcomes of the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL and among of the language skills which are listed in the CAPS. Reading is regarded as essential for language development, reading enjoyment, personal development and learning more about the world. Reading also forms the basis for writing (Department of Education 2002b). Language should be taught as a whole as there is an interrelationship between the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Teachers should balance various approaches to the teaching of reading and should focus on the integration of reading with one or more of the other skills in the classroom (Western Cape Education Department 2012).

Question 52.4: *Writing accurately*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.56), a clear majority of teachers (71 or 59%) regard writing accurately as important (code 2) for effective teaching and learning of Afrikaans FAL. 44 or 36% of teachers indicated that they regard writing accurately as very important (code 3) and small number of respondents said that writing accurately is not important (Code 1) for effective Afrikaans FAL teaching and learning.

Long and Sato's (1983: 283) research reported that ESL teachers tend to emphasise form over meaning and accuracy over communication. Nunan (1987) argues that the shift in emphasis away from accuracy should only take place when teachers are trained in all

aspects of CLT and the methodology or approach becomes part of their theoretical framework and knowledge base on additional language teaching and learning. It seems as if these teachers are still primarily focusing on form and accuracy, as is the case when teaching according to the audio-lingual method.

This does not mean that meaning and fluency should now be emphasised at the expense of form and accuracy. Zhao (2011) argues that current language teaching theory views a “dual” focus on form and accuracy as well as meaning and fluency. Spada (1997) and Swain (2005) are in agreement that meaning-based and form-based approaches can operate in synergy and need not be in opposition to each other. This orientation leads to the recognition that linguistic accuracy is only one component of proficiency and to an emphasis on communication as opposed to the memorisation of linguistic forms for discrete-point test items (Chastain 1989: 49) (see 5.2.3).

Question 52.5: Grammar

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.57), there is no difference between the number of teachers who regard grammar as important (code 2) and very important (code 3). In both cases 59 or 49% of the respondents selected one of the two options. Only 3 or 2% of the teachers indicated that they do not (code 1) regard grammar as important in the effective teaching and learning of the additional language.

As discussed under Question 52.4, the focus on the correct use of grammar should not be at the expense of fluent and meaningful communication. The methodology used when teaching grammar is also important. If an audio-lingual approach (see 3.4.2) is followed, the grammatical structures will be taught in isolation using pattern sentences and a lot of parrot-fashion repetition, which will not advance the learners' ability to communicate in authentic situations outside the classroom. As prescribed in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a), grammar should be taught using a process, text-based and communicative approach.

Question 52.6: Motivation and attitude of learners

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.58), the vast majority (91 or 75%) of the teachers indicated that the motivation and attitude of the learners are very important (code 3) for effective teaching and learning in the FAL classroom, whereas 30 or 25% of the respondents said that the learners' motivation and attitude are important for effective teaching

and learning. None of the teachers thought that these two aspects are not important for effective teaching and learning of the FAL.

In Question 53 the majority of the teachers indicated that the learners' lack of motivation and their negative attitude towards the target language is one of the three most important factors impacting negatively on their progress in Afrikaans. In Question 64 many teachers indicated that they needed support from the WCED in how to deal with learners who have a negative attitude towards the target language.

As discussed in 3.2.3, a study conducted by da Rocha (2010) at an urban primary school on the Cape Flats found that the Afrikaans-speaking parents have a negative attitude towards Afrikaans and do not regard Afrikaans as a language of value. "These parents' plan of action for their children would be to enrol them at English-medium schools because of their resistance to Afrikaans" (da Rocha 2010: 28). For these reasons we find large numbers of non-mother-tongue speakers of English in English-medium schools/classes where these learners are being instructed in English. Therefore the Afrikaans FAL teacher has an additional facilitative role to play, that of motivator and creator of a relaxed, non-threatening and learner-friendly environment in the additional language classroom in order to lower the learners' affective filter.

As seen in 3.4.4.5, Conteh-Morgan (2002) agrees that the social context of the classroom should provide a low affective filter, and advises that the moment the learners enter the class they must experience a non-threatening atmosphere, which may have a positive effect on the learners' attitude towards the subject and their motivation to acquire the language.

Question 52.7: *Motivation and attitude of teacher*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.59), an overwhelming majority (103 or 87%) of the teachers regard the teacher's motivation and attitude as very important (code 3) in the effective teaching and learning of the additional language. Only 16 or 13% of teachers indicated that the motivation and attitude of the teacher is important (code 2). No teachers indicated that the teacher's motivation and attitude are not important (code 1).

As discussed in 3.6.2, the teachers' attitude towards the learners and Afrikaans can also have a significant influence upon their expectations of the learners' learning, their treatment of learners, and what learners ultimately learn (Irvine 1990). Affirming attitudes, for example, have been shown to support learner achievement (Lucas, Henze & Donato 1990). Teachers with a negative attitude towards the target language will, like the learners, have a high affective filter and will struggle to teach Afrikaans with enthusiasm and commitment, which in

turn will negatively affect the and motivation. Weideman (2002:61) is convinced that the FAL teacher has a very important role to play, as the atmosphere in the classroom is crucial and the use of different methods and techniques can assist the teacher to make classrooms “places of joy and energy, free from embarrassment, fear and anxiety” (Weideman 2002: 61).

Question 52.8: *Combination of comprehension, speaking, listening, reading and writing skills*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.60) a large number of teachers (78 or 65%) indicated that the combination of comprehension, speaking, listening, reading and writing skills is very important (code 3) for the effective teaching and learning of the additional language. 42 or 35% of the respondents regard the combination of the different skills as important (code 2), but not important enough to answer that it was very important. No teachers selected not important (code 1) as their answer.

The literature (see 3.4, 3.4.3) and the FAL curricula (Department of Education 2002b; Department of Basic Education 2011a and Western Cape Education Department 2012) stress the importance of integrating the different language skills in the teaching programme and all teachers agree with the importance of teaching the FAL in an integrated way. The emphasis should be on teaching the language as a whole and not piecemeal and with a focus on discrete aspects. The BLA, as proposed by the WCED (2012), also suggests that all language skills should be used in balanced way. When teachers teach reading, for example, they should integrate speaking and or writing, of both, into the lesson.

Question 52.9: *Suitable resources*

This question focused on all possible resources available to the teacher, whereas the next question focused only on the textbook as a resource. According to the distribution (see Appendix J.61), the majority (79 or 66%) of teachers regard suitable resources as very important (code 3) and 39 or 33% of the teachers indicated that suitable resources are important (code 2). 2 or 2% of the respondents indicated that suitable resources are not important (code 1) for effective teaching and learning of the additional language.

As discussed in 3.5.1, Nunan (1991) is of the opinion that teaching materials put flesh to the bones of the goals and objectives of the syllabus or curriculum. Learning and teaching support material are especially important in developing countries, as many schools lack material resources, such as age- and culture-appropriate reading materials for children. This need for appropriate resources in Afrikaans FAL classes was highlighted by the teachers' responses to Questions 53, 63 and 64. In 2011 the DBE promised the introduction of a new

system of providing and selecting LTSM. This new system has two goals: “to ensure only high-quality material is offered to schools and ensuring all learners and teachers have the support material they need” (Department of Basic Education 2011). This support material should go beyond textbooks. As discussed in 3.5.2, resources should be extended to include authentic texts from the world outside the classroom and technological resources in order for the teachers and learners to keep up with the rapidly changing world they live in.

Question 52.10: *Suitable textbooks*

There is a correlation between the teachers’ responses to this question and the previous one (see Appendix J.62). 79 or 66% of teachers regard suitable textbooks as very important (code 3) for effective FAL teaching and learning, and a smaller number of teachers (37 or 31%) of teachers regard suitable textbooks as important (code 2) for effective teaching and learning in the FAL classroom. 3 or 3% of the teachers indicated that suitable textbooks are not important (code1) for effective additional language teaching and learning.

When we look at the teachers’ responses to Questions 53, 60, 63 and 64, we realise that there is a great need for enough textbooks that are appropriate for the learners’ age, interests and language levels. This need is reflected in the report on research conducted by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), which showed that in 2007 only 45% of South African learners had their own textbooks (Department of Basic Education 2011). In Question 54C.3 only 48% of the teachers indicated that they regularly use textbooks in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL and another 24% only sometimes use the textbook.

Question 52.11: *Enough time*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.63), a large majority (88 or 73%) of teachers indicated that enough time is very important (code 3) for effective additional language teaching and learning. 31 or 26% of the teachers indicated that they regard enough time as important (code 2), but not very important for effective FAL teaching and learning. Only one teacher was of the opinion that enough time is not important (code 1) for the effective teaching and learning of the additional language.

In their answers to Question 44, 78% of the respondent indicated that they would like to have more time allocated to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL. The RNCS (Department of Education 2001b) does not indicate how much time should be spent on FAL teaching and it is up the school to decide how it will allocate the six hours for Languages. If teachers do not have

enough time to cover the whole curriculum, they will choose those concepts they consider more important or feel more comfortable with to teach and leave out the rest. Teachers often choose topics or aspects of the curriculum that they believe the learners might find more interesting.

As discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, language acquisition cannot be rushed as it is a gradual process that requires sufficient exposure to the target language over a long period of time.

Question 52.12: *Thinking and reasoning*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.64), there is not a big difference between the number of teachers who indicated that thinking and reasoning are important (code 2) and those who regard thinking and reasoning as very important (code 3) for effective teaching and learning in the additional language classroom. 65 or 54% of respondents selected very important (code 3) and 51 or 43% of the teachers selected important (code 2). 4 or 3% of the teachers indicated that they regard thinking and reasoning as not important (code 1) for effective teaching and learning in the additional classroom.

The skill of thinking and reasoning is described in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 51) as “Die leerder is in staat om taal vir dink en redeneer te gebruik en inligting vir leer te verkry, verwerk en gebruik.” In their responses to Question 54A.8 the vast majority of teachers indicated that they do make use of debates and other opportunities for learners to express their own opinions. These activities are ideal opportunities to develop the learners’ thinking and reasoning skills, which they will need when confronted with the target language in the outside world. It is a matter of concern that 22% of the teachers never expose their learners to these kinds of activities.

Question 53

*What would you consider to be the **three** most important factors impacting **negatively** on your learners’ progress in Afrikaans FAL?*

From the data collected from the 119 teachers who answered this question it was very clear that the three most important factors impacting negatively on the learners’ progress in Afrikaans FAL are, firstly, the learners’ and their parents’ negative attitude towards Afrikaans as language. According to some teachers, these negative attitudes of learners and parents lead to a lack of interest in the subject and the learners’ poor performance. The interviews also revealed the teachers’ struggle with the learners’ negative attitude towards Afrikaans. According to them many learners come from a background where Afrikaans, or their dialect of

Afrikaans, is seen as inferior (see 3.2.3). Here are some of the comments made by the teachers:

“Learners’ negative attitude towards Afrikaans”.

“Daar kleef 'n stigma aan Afrikaans in sommige gemeenskappe”.

“Geen belangstelling in Afrikaans”.

“Houding van ouers en leerders jeens die vak”.

“Leerders se ingesteldheid dat hulle nie die taal nodig het nie. Met Engels kan hul ver kom”.

“Houding teenoor taal (“taal wat sterf”)”.

“Their attitude that it's a foreign (useless) language, no need to learn it! Lack of desire to study it”.

“Hulle sien geen nut daarin om Afrikaans te leer”.

The second factor impacting negatively on the learners’ progress is the lack of exposure to the language, because in many cases the learners hear Afrikaans only in the classroom, or when they do hear it outside the classroom it is mostly slang or, according to the teachers, a dialect not suitable for the classroom or meeting the LOs and ASs of the RNCS. This is well illustrated in the following statements shared by the teachers:

“Hulle hoor glad nie Afrikaans by die huis nie.”

“Little exposure to the language (home, in their community)”

“Hulle hoor en praat nie die taal gereeld nie.”

“They don't come into contact with Afrikaans other than during Afrikaans lessons.”

“Hulle hoor nie Afrikaans in die gemeenskap nie.”

“Lack of exposure for the formal language.”

“They speak the language incorrectly (use slang instead).”

“They only hear the language in the classroom and sometimes on TV.”

“‘Slang’ spoken within the community that learners have adapted to.”

The third most important factor identified by the teachers as impacting negatively on the learners' progress in Afrikaans is the shortage of suitable textbooks and other age- and language-level-appropriate materials, which in turn has a negative effect on the learners' reading skills. A selection of quotes by the teachers shows their concern as well as their frustration with the lack of appropriate material for the Afrikaans FAL classroom:

"Tekort aan leermiddels"

"Suitable/modern reading material; comprehensions from gr 4 to 7."

"Die leermateriaal is onvoldoende volgens die NKV moet ek 'n variasie tekste gebruik, maar dis so moeilik om alles te kry."

"Lack of resources"

"Lack of suitable, age appropriate, standard of children appropriate resource material."

"Gebrek aan geskikte leesstof vir tieners."

"Te min hulpbronne vir kinders."

"Lack of resources"

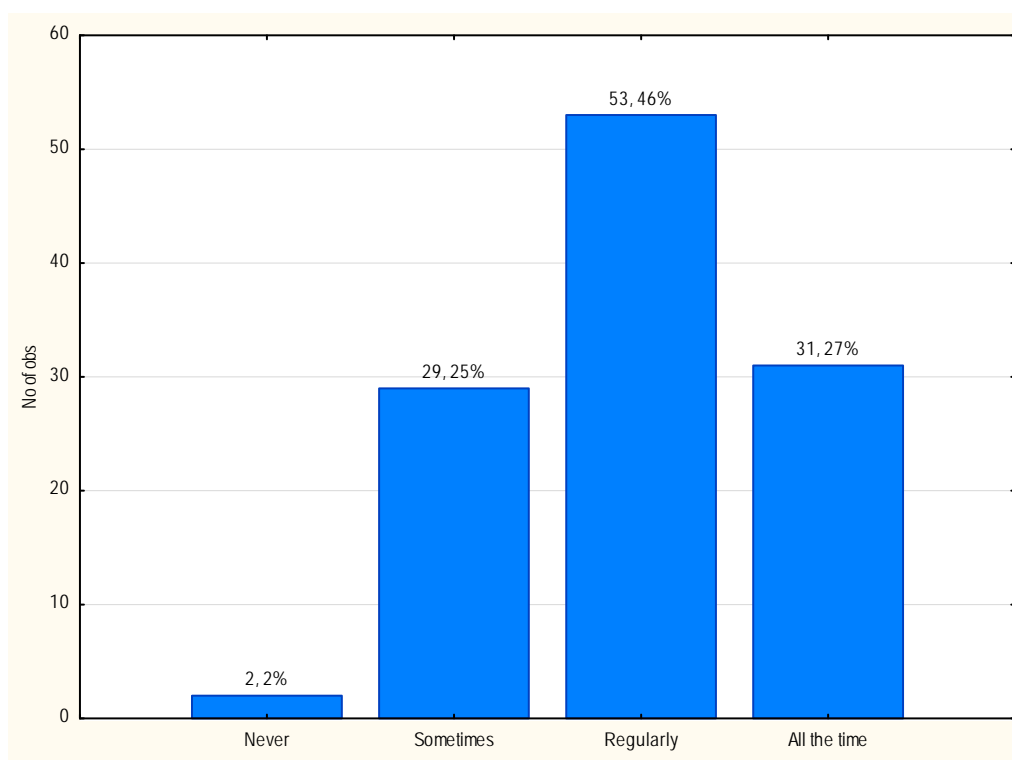
"Daar is nie genoeg goeie leermateriaal nie."

Other factors listed by the teachers that have a negative impact on the learners' progress in Afrikaans FAL were: the expectations set out in the ASs are too high, too little teaching time is allocated to Afrikaans FAL, some teachers' own proficiency in the target language is inadequate, and some teachers have a negative attitude towards Afrikaans.

When we compare the data of Question 53 with the data of Question 8, there is a correlation between the responses from the teachers to the two questions. In Question 8 62% of the teachers indicated that insufficient exposure to the target language is the most important reason for the learners' poor performance with regard to the RNCS requirements, and the second most important reason (29% of teachers) for the learners' poor performance was the negative attitude of the learners. The lack of resources or textbooks was not an option to select in Question 8.

Question 54A

Please indicate how often you use the following methodological practices in your classroom when teaching Afrikaans FAL.

Question 54A.1: *Teacher explains in the Mother Tongue/HL of learners or in the LoLT:***Figure 5.33:** *Distribution of teachers explaining in MT/HL or LoLT*

According to the distribution, most of the teachers (53 or 46%) use another language, either MT/HL or LoLT, regularly (code 3) for explanations in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. A total of 31 or 37% of the teachers use either the MT/HL or LoLT for explanations all the time (code 4). Another 29 or 25% of respondents indicated that they sometimes (code 2) explain in the MT/HL or LoLT. Only two or 2% of teachers never (code 1) explain in another language than the target language, Afrikaans.

The reason for this may be because the learners do not understand the target language well enough to grasp explanations in Afrikaans. In Question 7, however, 86 or 73% of the teachers indicated that at least half or more of the learners in their classes perform at the level indicated in the RNCS for listening and understanding. If this is the case, it is unclear why the teachers so often need to use another language for explanations. It may be, that in order to ensure that all the learners understand the questions, instructions and general classroom talk, the teachers feel compelled to code-switch to the learners' mother tongue or the LoLT. The data from Question 6 indicate that most of the learners had very limited exposure to the target language outside the Afrikaans FAL classroom. Therefore, if the teacher does not use the time in the Afrikaans classroom for optimal exposure to the target

language, how and where will the learners hear the language and how long will it take to acquire the language?

As discussed in 3.4.3, a communicative approach implies that learners will have many opportunities to be exposed to the target language in order to produce the language by communicating for social or practical purposes. In 3.4.4 it was stated that exposure to the language is necessary for acquisition and that a prolonged period should be spent on learners listening to the language before they should be expected to produce the language (Richards & Rodgers 1986).

Question 54A.2: *Teacher explains in Afrikaans*

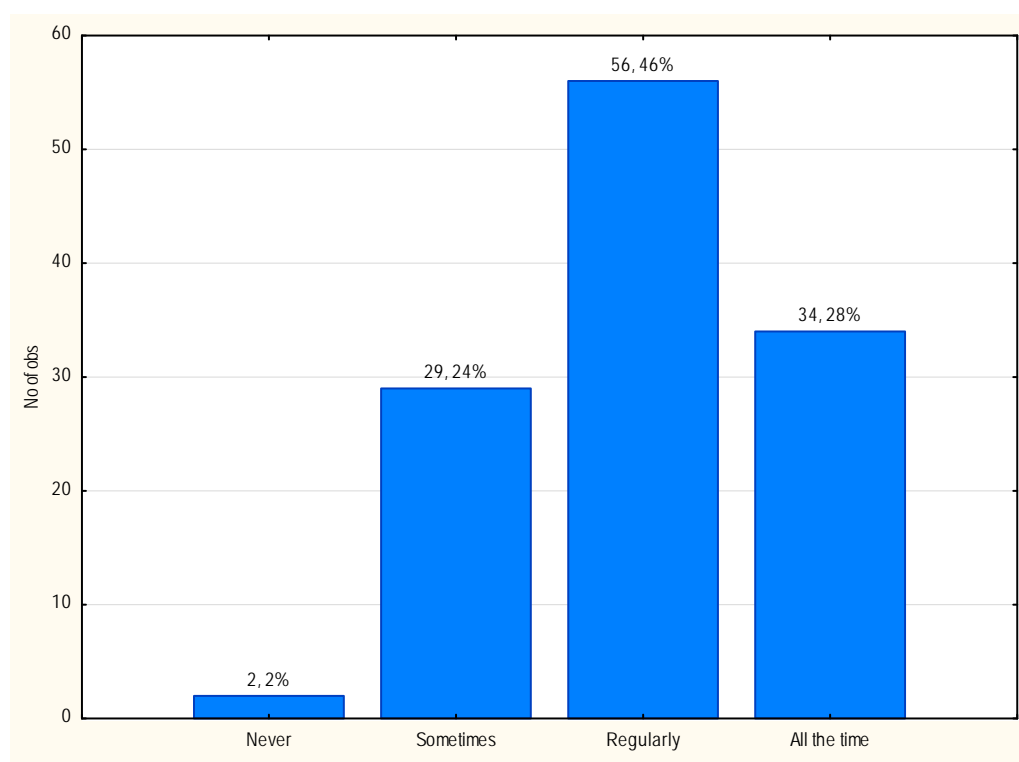


Figure 5.34: *Distribution of teachers explaining in Afrikaans*

According to the distribution, the teachers' responses to Question 54A.1 and Question 54A.2 are almost the same. The researcher did not expect this response. 56 or 46% of teachers indicated that they regularly (code 3) explain in Afrikaans. This is almost the exact same number of teachers who indicated that they regularly explain in English. 34 or 28% of teachers use Afrikaans all the time (code 4) for explanations in the FAL classroom, whereas 27% of the teachers indicated in Question 54A.1 that they explain in English all the time. Another 29 or 24% of teachers sometimes (code 2) explain in Afrikaans compared to the

25% of respondents who indicated that they sometimes explain in English. Two or 2% of teachers never (code 1) explain in Afrikaans.

One possible explanation for these responses of the teachers may be that many of the teachers do make use of code-switching in their FAL classrooms in order to give all learners the opportunity to participate in the teaching and learning activities.

Question 54A.3: Choral repetition

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.67), the vast majority of the teachers make use of choral repetition in their FAL teaching to some degree. 52 or 44% of teachers use choral repetition regularly (code 3) as a methodological practice and 43 or 36% of respondents indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use choral repetition. 14 or 12% of the teachers make use of choral repetition all the time (code 4), whereas 10 or 8% of teachers indicated that they never (code 1) make use of coral repetition in the FAL teaching. The data indicate that the teachers use choral repetition extensively in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. This practice may provide the teachers and learners with some sense of achievement, as all learners are using the correct “patterns” at that moment, but as the literature has shown, drilling activities do not prepare the learners to produce authentic language outside the classroom.

The use of choral repetition in the FAL classroom is seen as a remnant of the audio-lingual method (see 3.4.2) of language teaching and learning. According to Hockett (1959 in Richards & Rodgers 1986: 46), the purpose of these drills is the mastery of the structures of the language, which can only be achieved by means of numerous repetitions of the same pattern. Chomsky (1966: 153), however, states that language is not a habit structure. Ordinary communication involves innovative and new language and the speaker must be able to produce new sentences and patterns in the target language. The repetition of these patterns will not help the learners to communicate effectively outside the classroom. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a), the Foundations for Learning (Department of Education 2008), the WCED Literacy and Numeracy strategy (2006) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) clearly promote a communicative and whole language approach to language teaching. The WCED Literacy and Numeracy strategy (2006:8) describes the teachers’ task as being to “encourage knowledge construction instead of knowledge reproduction”.

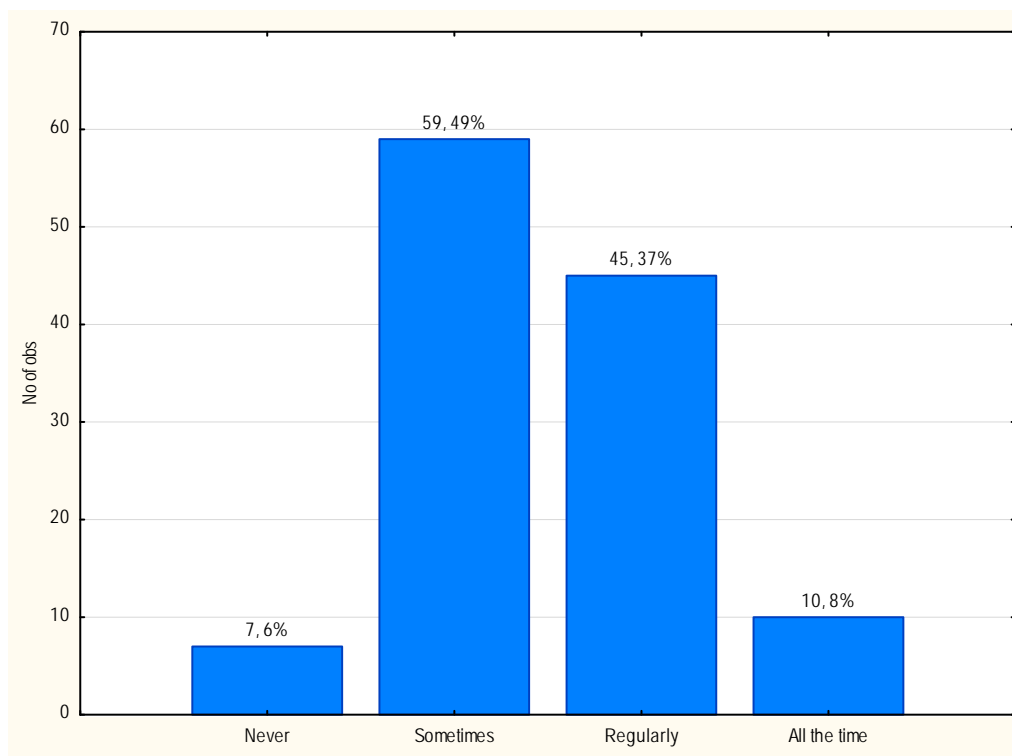
Question 54A.4: Group work

Figure 5.35: Distribution of teachers using group work

According to the distribution, the majority of teachers use group work to some degree as a methodological practice in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. A total of 59 or 49% of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) make use of group work in their FAL teaching. Another 45 or 37% regularly (code 3) use group work and 10 or 8% use group work all the time (code 4). 7 or 6% of the teachers indicated that they never (code 1) use group work when teaching Afrikaans FAL.

The data show that most teachers do make use of group work. Those teachers who only sometimes or never use group work in their classes may still find themselves in teacher-centred classrooms where the teacher is the only source of knowledge and the learners are regarded as empty vessels. Group work is a manifestation of Vygotsky's social constructivist theory (see 2.3) and he regards peer support and interaction with peers and adults as vital to the learning process. Therefore the teachers who subscribe to social constructivism should allow for pair and group work as is prescribed in the WCED Literacy and Numeracy strategy (2006). Communicative language teaching (see 3.4.3) supports the learners' interaction with other people through pair and group work. Harley and Wedekind (2004), however, warn against too much group work or group work that is not well planned and facilitated by the teacher.

Question 54A.5: Vocabulary lists

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.69), the overwhelming majority of teachers make use of vocabulary lists when teaching Afrikaans FAL. 49 or 40% of teachers regularly (code 3) use vocabulary lists and another 37 or 31% of teachers use vocabulary lists all the time (code 4). 31 or 26% of teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) make use of vocabulary lists. 4 or 3% of respondents never (code 1) use vocabulary lists in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL.

It seems as if most of the teachers are still using vocabulary lists, which, like choral repetition, is characteristic of the audio-lingual method to teach new words to the learners. The problem with these vocabulary lists are that the words are presented out of context to the learners with no example as to how the words can be used in an authentic communicative situation. As seen in 3.4.2, Richards and Rodgers (1986) highlight some of the criticisms against this method. Language learning becomes a boring and tiresome exercise of memorising endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary. Hart (2003) is of the opinion that learner-centred language teaching should allow learners to develop an understanding of the language by engaging the learners in real-life language activities rather than by learning lists of rules and words (see 3.4.3).

Question 54A.6: Self- or peer evaluation

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.71), the majority of the teachers make use of self- or peer evaluation in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. 64 or 54% of teachers sometimes (code 2) use self- or peer evaluation and another 34 or 29% of teachers regularly (code 3) use self- or peer evaluation. 2 or 3% of teachers indicated that they use this method of evaluation all the time (code 4), whereas 17 or 14% of teachers never (code 1) make use of self- or peer evaluation in their FAL teaching.

Peer evaluation ties in very well with the social constructivist view of Vygotsky and the concept of ZPD. In 2.3 the role of the peer in the scaffolding process was discussed in detail. Donato (1990) is of the opinion that in certain circumstances learners can provide the same kind of support and guidance for each other that the teacher can provide. Harris and Brown (2013: 101) highlight the advantages of peer- and self-assessment in primary schools. These assessment practices engage and empower learners, develop their self-regulation and metacognition, improve the learners' communication skills and create a better understanding of the assessment criteria used to evaluate the learners' work.

Question 54A.7: *Doing corrections*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.70), most of the teachers do allow for corrections to be done in their FAL teaching. 37 or 31% of the teachers sometimes (code 2) let the learners do corrections. Another 56 or 47% of the teachers regularly (code 3) engage the learners in doing corrections and another 24 or 20% let the learners do corrections all the time (code 4). 3 or 3% of the respondents never (code 1) let the learners do corrections.

As discussed in 3.4.4.1, Krashen (1987:11) is of the opinion that “[e]rror correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning. Error correction supposedly helps the learner to induce or ‘figure out’ the right form of a rule”. Richards and Rodgers (1986:132) regard errors as signs of the natural “developmental processes” which occur as part of the acquisition process. The teacher must be aware that an over-emphasis on error correction may tend to increase the affective filter and inhibit language development. Therefore, as discussed in 3.6.2, the teacher should foster a spirit of tolerance and acceptance towards one another, which will help to create a safe and affirming environment in which learners will take risks and view errors as a natural progression of language learning. The teacher should not ignore errors, but can use the learners’ errors in written work to design follow-up activities in which these errors are addressed.

Question 54A.8: *Debates or other opportunities for learners to express their own opinion*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.72), the vast majority (63 or 53%) of the teachers sometimes (code 2) allow for debates or other opportunities for learners to express their own opinions in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 26 or 22% of the respondents indicated that they use these practices regularly (code 3), whereas only 3 or 3% of the teachers use these practices all the time (code 4). 26 or 22% of the teachers indicated that they never (code 1) make use of debates or provide the learners with other opportunities to express their own opinion in the Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Although the majority of teachers do make use of debates or other opportunities for learners to express their own opinion to some extent, it is a matter of concern that more than a fifth of the teachers never implement any of these activities in their FAL lessons. The RNCS (2002b), which was the national curriculum at the time of the data collection, prescribes these activities as part of LO 2: Speaking and LO 4: Thinking and Reasoning. Learners must be able to communicate effectively and with confidence in the spoken language in a variety of situations (LO 2) and be able to use the language for thinking and reasoning as well as to

access, process and use information for learning (LO 4). These interactive activities provide the learners with authentic communicative opportunities where they are expected to use language which they will encounter outside the classroom.

As seen in 3.4.3, Canale and Swain (1980: 9) refer to the basic communication skills as those communication skills that the learner will need “to get along in, or cope with, in the most common second language situations the learner is likely to face.” Savignon (1972) refers to the need to develop the skills that FAL learners need in order to get the message across. FAL learners need to develop the knowledge of which utterances are appropriate in certain sociocultural contexts. This can only take place if the learners are given ample opportunities to voice their own opinions during debates and other oral interactions in the safety of the FAL classroom.

Question 54B.1: *Activities that integrate most of the outcomes for additional language Teaching*

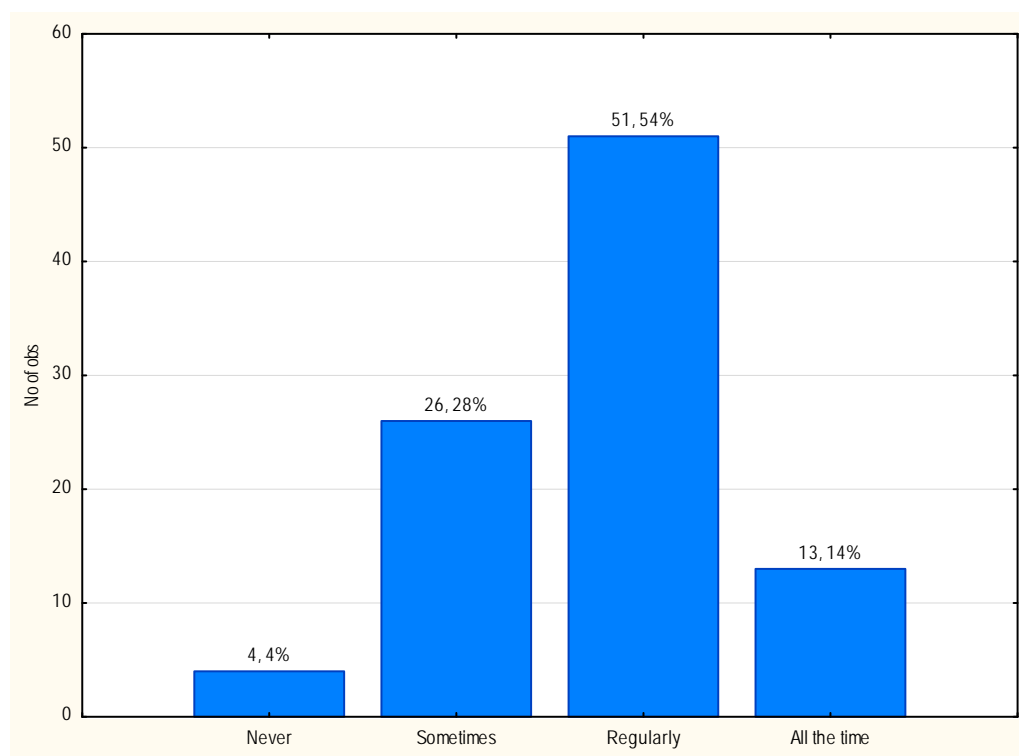


Figure 5.36: *Distribution of teachers integrating the outcomes for additional language teaching*

According to the distribution, the majority (51 or 54%) of the teachers regularly (code 3) integrate the outcomes when teaching Afrikaans FAL. 26 or 28% of the teachers sometimes (code 2) integrate the outcomes in their teaching, whereas 13 or 14% of the teachers

integrate the outcomes all the time (code 4). Four or 4% of the teachers indicated that they never (code 1) integrate the outcomes when teaching the additional language. Most of the teachers do implement the principle of integration of skills on a regular basis, which is in line with the prescriptions of the curriculum.

The RNCS (2002b:7) for Afrikaans FAL explicitly states that “Luister, praat, lees en kyk, skryf, dink en redeneer, en kennis van klanke, woorde en grammatika behoort, alhoewel dit as aparte leeruitkomst aangebied word, tydens onderrig en assessering geïntegreer te word”. The document continues by providing examples to the teachers how this integration can be implemented. As discussed in 3.4, these requirements are supported by Nunan’s (1995:3) statement that “even in lessons which are explicitly devoted to one or other of the macro-skills, the other skills usually also feature prominently.” Brown (2001) (see 3.4.3) describes language as a unit which should not be taught by breaking it up into smaller parts, but as a whole. Therefore teachers should focus on the integration of two or more of these skills in their Afrikaans FAL lessons.

Question 54B.2: Computer-based activities

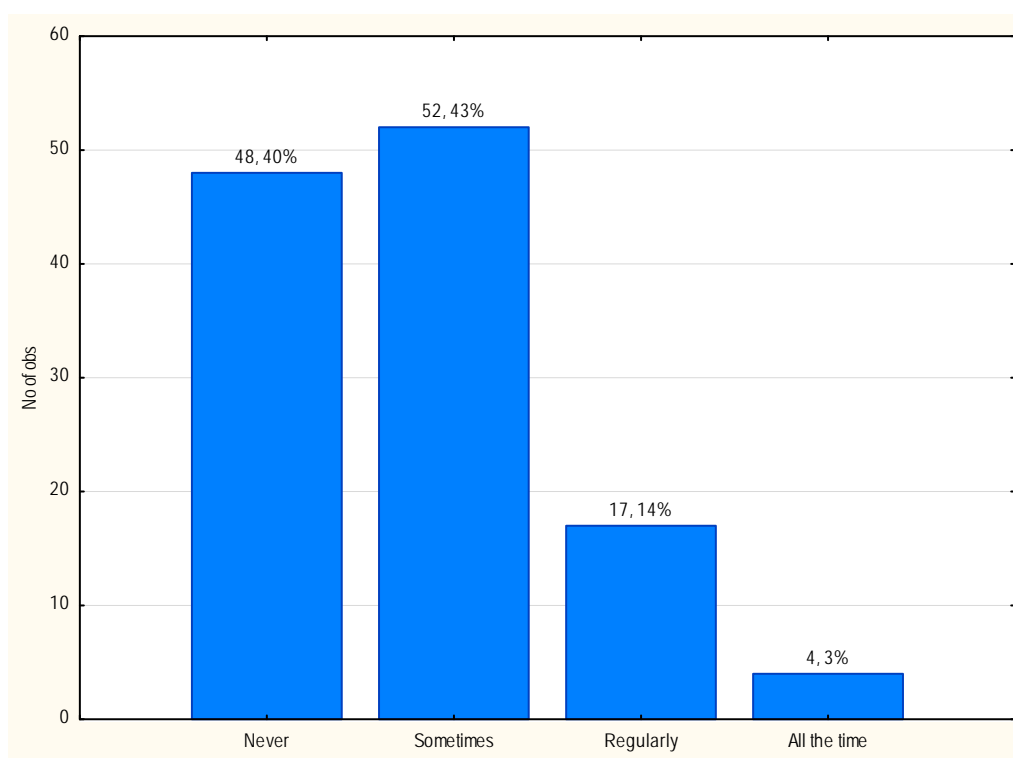


Figure 5.37: Distribution of teachers using computer-based activities in the Afrikaans FAL classroom

According to the distribution, 48 or 40% of the teachers never (code 1) make use of computer-based activities when teaching Afrikaans FAL. 52 or 43% of respondents indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use computer-based activities in their FAL classroom, whereas only 17 or 14% of the Afrikaans FAL teachers regularly (code 3) use computer-based activities. Four or 3% of the teachers use computer-based activities all the time (code 4). The reason for this distribution may be that computer facilities are not always available, as many of the schools where the teachers are teaching are under-resourced and located in very poor areas. Therefore the teachers may have to share the computer facilities with other teachers and subjects. The teachers may also not have been trained in the use of technology in their teaching. Another reason for the low participation rate in computer-based teaching may also be that there is a shortage of Afrikaans FAL computer programs or electronic materials.

As discussed in 3.5.2, technology is no longer only a resource that teachers can use to enhance their teaching; it also provides learners with greater access to the target language (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011). The use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) programs can be adapted to meet the needs of diverse learners by analysing their input and providing customised feedback and remedial exercises suited to their proficiency. This will assist the teacher with large classes to cater for individual learners' language needs. The idea is not that the computer will take over the role of the teacher, but if it is used correctly, it can become a tool that facilitates meaningful and challenging classroom work (Van Lier 2003). It is therefore important that teachers should be knowledgeable about technology and, if they choose to use it, they should do so in pedagogically sound ways. Technology should be integrated into the curriculum and not just added on because it is new and frees up the teacher.

Question 54B.3: Worksheets

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.75), an overwhelming majority of the teachers make use of worksheets in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. 63 or 52% of the teachers regularly (code 3) use worksheets and another 44 or 36% of teachers indicated that they use worksheets all the time (code 4) in their Afrikaans FAL classroom. 13 or 11% of the respondents indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use worksheets and 2 or 2% of the teachers never (code 1) use worksheets when teaching Afrikaans FAL. These data, which point to the extensive use of worksheets in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, support the results of Question 56, where 33% of the teachers indicated that their learners spend most of the time working quietly on their own exercises in their books.

Question 54B.4: Translation

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.76), a majority of teachers make use of translation activities in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. 49 or 41% of the teachers sometimes (code 2) make use of translation and 42 or 35% of the teachers indicated that they regularly (code 3) use translation activities in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. 16 or 13% of the respondents make use of translation activities all the time (code 4). Only 12 or 10% of the teachers indicated that they never (code 1) use translation activities in their Afrikaans FAL teaching.

Translation activities remind one of the grammar-translation method, where the focus is on the learning of structures and specific vocabulary in order to translate written sentences. In this case it might be that the teachers use the vocabulary lists (see 54A.5) for the translation exercises. The reason why so many teachers still use these activities may be the learners' lack of understanding of the target language or the teachers' lack of knowledge of the CLT methodology. The teachers may not be knowledgeable about strategies to assist the learners in making meaning of the Afrikaans vocabulary and translation activities are an easy way out. These translation activities usually focus only on the development of the writing and reading skills in the target language, but the listening and speaking skills are neglected.

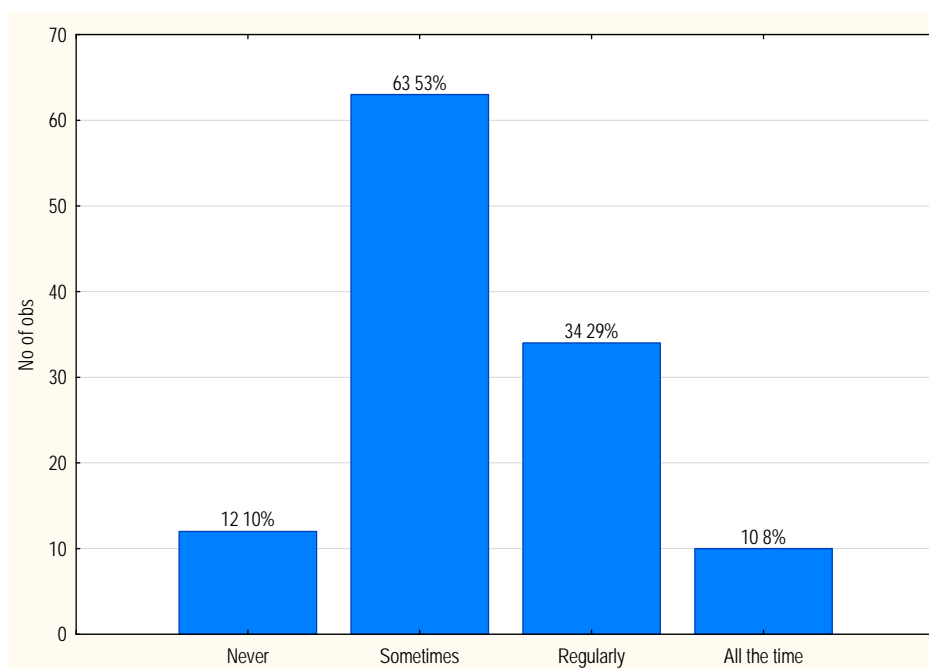
Question 54b.5: Language games

Figure 5.38: Distribution of teachers using language games in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms

According to the distribution, a majority of teachers only sometimes (code 2) make use of language games in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. 34 or 20% of the teachers indicated that they regularly (code 3) use language games and another 10 or 8% of teacher use language games all the time (code 4). 12 or 10% of the respondents never (code 1) use language games in their Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Language games are learner-centred (see 3.4.3) activities which are enjoyable and stimulating. The games allow the learners more time to talk and interact with their peers which will help with the development of the learners' language proficiency (Jones 2007). Hart (2003) is of the opinion that these kinds of activities will expose the learners to real-life situations and language that they will need outside the classroom. Many teachers mentioned the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans (see Question 53) as one of the factors that impact negatively on their performance in Afrikaans. If the teachers use fun activities such as language games more often, it may help to lower the affective filter, which will in turn contribute positively to the acquisition process (Krashen 1985; Richards & Rogers 1986).

Question 54B.6: *Creative writing*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.77), the majority of the teachers use creative writing activities to some degree in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. The vast majority (69 or 57%) of teachers indicated that they regularly (code 3) make use of creative writing activities and another 31 or 25% only sometimes (code 2) do creative writing activities with their learners. 19 or 16% use creative writing activities all the time (code 4), whereas three or 2% of the teachers never (code 1) use creative writing activities in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms.

In the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 14) writing is addressed under LO 4: Writing. According to the LO 4: Writing for Afrikaans FAL the learner is expected "om verskillende soorte feitlike en verbeeldingstekste vir 'n wye verskeidenheid doeleindes te skryf". Creative writing activities are included in "verbeeldingstekste". According to the data, the majority of the teachers do expose their learners to creative writing activities as prescribed in the RNCS. The RNCS emphasises that this type of writing must be scaffolded (see 3.4.5) properly by the teacher in the intermediate phase; therefore the teachers should initially provide a lot of support to the learners during modelled writing and withdraw the support gradually until the learners are able to write independently (Tompkins 1997). This balanced approach with the built-in scaffolding is also the preferred method for language teaching in the CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a).

Question 54B.7: *Activities involving actions*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.79), the majority of teachers do make use of activities that involve actions during their Afrikaans FAL lessons. 57 or 48% of teachers sometimes (code 2) use activities with actions in the additional language classrooms and 31 or 26% use these types of activities regularly (code 3). 8 or 7% of teachers indicated that they use activities involving actions all the time (code 4) in their FAL teaching. 24 or 20% of teachers said that they never (code 1) make use of activities involving actions when teaching Afrikaans FAL.

As discussed in 3.4.3 and 3.4.4, total physical response (TPR) is a language teaching approach which attempts to teach language through physical activity. Kroll and Sunderman (2003) believe that skills can be acquired more rapidly if you involve the kinaesthetic-sensory system. TPR can also be seen as a form of scaffolding, as the learners are supported to understand the commands/instructions through the actions demonstrated to them by the teacher. TPR contributes to creating an enjoyable and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. Asher (1969) and Krashen and Terrell (1983) regard the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning as very important; they believe that a method that does not make high linguistic demands on the learner and a method that involves physical movement will reduce stress and create a positive mood in the learner, which will in turn facilitate learning. TPR activities also develop the learners' listening skills, as the learners have to listen attentively and respond physically to the commands given by the teacher. One of the negative aspects of TPR is that it may lead to a noisy class and some problems with class management, and therefore some teachers may rather avoid TPR. According to the data, learners in 20% of the Afrikaans FAL classrooms are missing out on this fun and enjoyable way of acquiring the target language and this may be a contributory factor why so many learners display a negative attitude towards the language.

Question 54B.8: *Activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme and rhythm*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.78), a majority of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme and rhythm in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. Another 25 or 21% regularly (code 3) use activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme and rhythm. A small number (8 or 7%) of teachers indicated that they include these activities in their Afrikaans FAL teaching all the time (code 4) and 27 or 23% of the respondents never (code 1) use activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme and rhythm.

Freppon and Dahl (1998) are of the opinion that language play with familiar texts, e.g. rhymes, poems, songs, and playing with sound elements, helps learners develop phonics knowledge (see 3.4.5 and 3.4.4.5). These activities also bring the element of enjoyment into the FAL classroom, which helps to create a non-threatening atmosphere. When learners enjoy the Afrikaans lessons, their affective filter is lowered and they become much more receptive to the input they get (Dulay and Burt 1977; Krashen 1985; Lightbown and Spada 1999). The fact that the majority of teachers use activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme and rhythm in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms will assist them with changing the learners' negative attitudes (see Question 53) towards the language by creating a relaxed and enjoyable atmosphere in the classroom. These activities are also suggested as Assessment Standards for LO 2: Speaking (Department of Education 2002b: 62-63).

Question 54B.9: *Oral presentation with teaching aids*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.81), almost all teachers make use of oral presentations with teaching aids. 34 or 28% of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) let the learners do oral presentations with teaching aids, whereas a great majority of teachers regularly (code 3) use these activities in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 17 or 14% use these activities all the time (code 4) and only one teacher indicated that he/she never (code 1) uses oral presentations with teaching aids.

The RNCS (2002b: 60 – 61) describes oral activities that the learners should be able to do in order to achieve LO 2: Speaking. The use of teaching aids will enhance the presentations and assist the audience (other learners) with meaning making while listening to the presentation. Such presentations may include explanations on “How to ...”. The learners can bring all the necessary resources to class to assist them with the presentations.

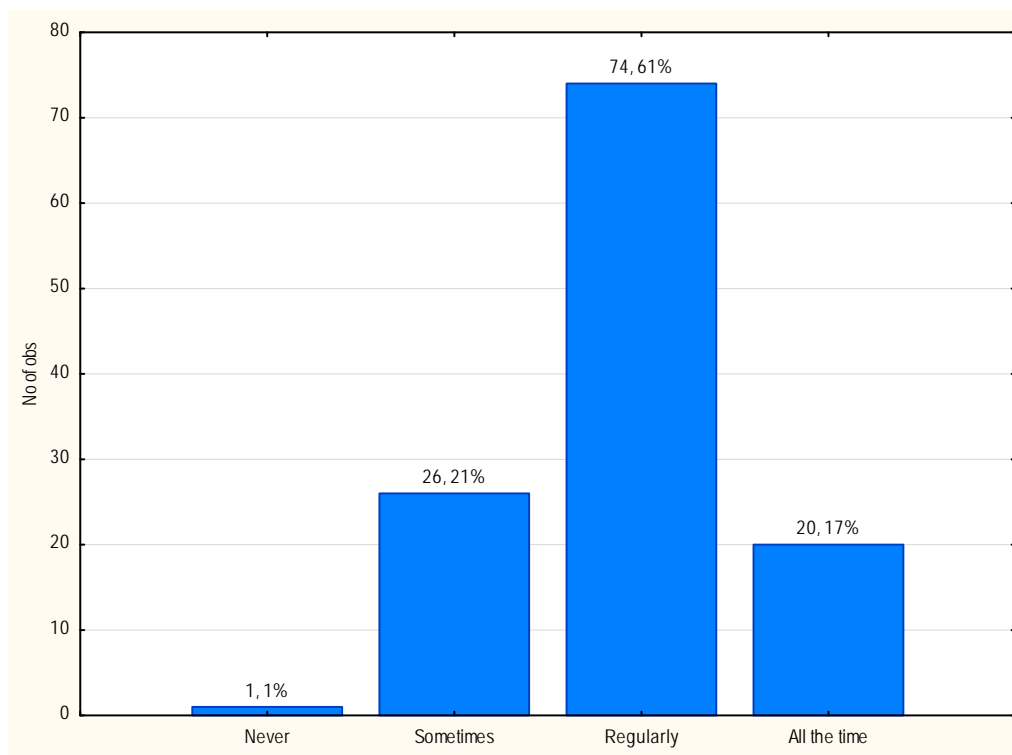
Question 54B.10: *Prepared orals*

Figure 5.39: *Distribution of teachers using prepared orals in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms*

According to the distribution, the vast majority (74 or 61%) of teachers regularly (code 3) make use of prepared orals as an activity in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 26 or 21% use prepared orals sometimes (code 2) and another 20 or 17% of respondents indicated that they use prepared orals all the time (code 4). Only one teacher never uses prepared orals in his/her teaching of Afrikaans FAL.

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 14) expects the Afrikaans FAL learner “om vrymoedig en doeltreffend in gesproke taal binne ‘n wye verskeidenheid situasies te kommunikeer”. Prepared orals represent only one of these situations and only one Assessment Standard in LU 2: Praat (Department of Education 2002b:61) refers to prepared orals: “gesels oor ‘n onderwerp waarvoor voorbereiding gedoen is”. As discussed in 3.4.3, learners must be prepared to use the target language in the real world in authentic communicative situations. Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004: 35) state clearly that one of the main aims of using a language is the development of communicative competence, which they define as “the ability to linguistically apply the language correctly in authentic situations”.

Very few Afrikaans FAL learners will find themselves in a situation outside the classroom where they have to deliver a prepared speech in Afrikaans. There is also no guarantee that the prepared orals are the learners' own work. Many learners read the oral from a piece of paper without any indication that they really understand the content. This is not effective and natural communication in an authentic situation. The fact that the vast majority of the teachers use this activity regularly or all the time in their Afrikaans FAL classroom may be because this is an easy way of getting oral marks for the record, or the learners' proficiency may be so poor that they are not able to engage in authentic and unprepared conversations with the teacher or peers.

Question 54B.11: Role play

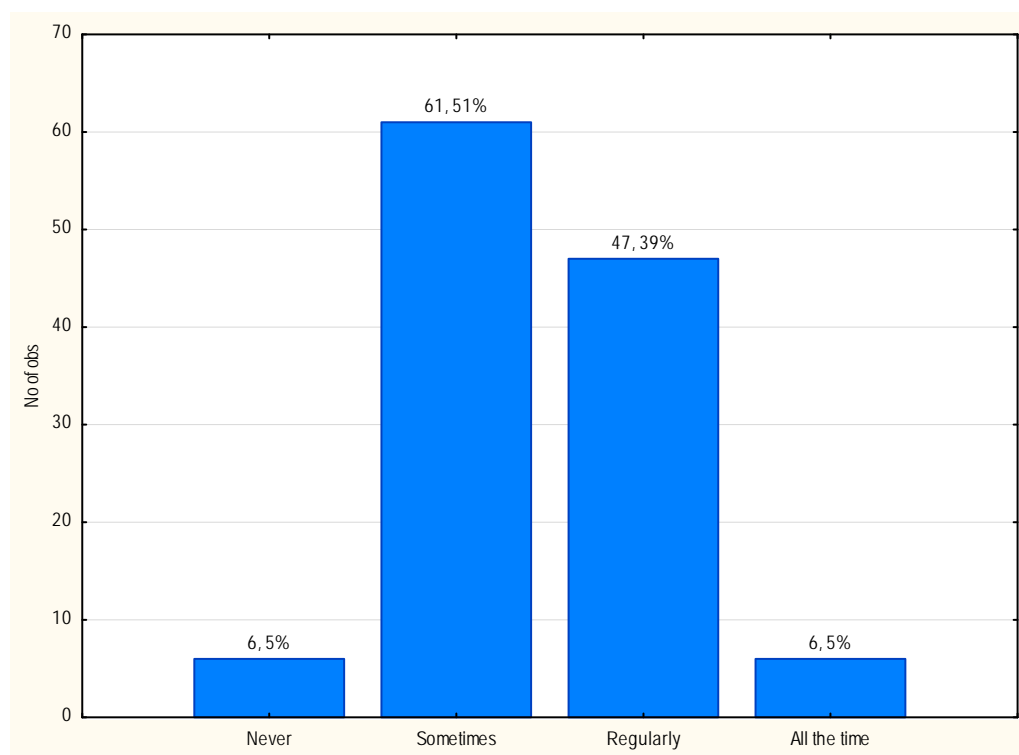


Figure 5.40: Distribution of teachers using role play in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms

According to the distribution, more than half (61 or 51%) of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use role play in their Afrikaans FAL classroom. 47 or 39% of respondents regularly (code 3) use role play and another six or 5% use role all the time (code 4) in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. Only six or 5% of the teachers never (code 1) use role play as an activity in their FAL classroom. There is a difference between the data from Question 54B.10 and Question 54B.11. A larger number of the teachers sometimes use role play than those who sometimes use prepared orals. On the other hand, fewer teachers use

role play (47) than prepared orals (74) on a regular basis in their classes. Fewer teachers also indicated that they use role play all the time. There are also more teachers who never use role play than teachers who never use prepared orals.

Role play is a game-like technique in second and foreign language teaching where learners re-enact various real-life roles and functions. By taking on a role and becoming someone else, this technique manages to lower the affective filter and learners are therefore much more confident to communicate in the target language (Gordon 2012). Role-play activities also enhance the integration of the different language skills as the RNCS and CAPS prescribe.

In their research on English language teaching and learning in India, Chaitanya and Ramana (2013) observed learners' lack of participation in classroom discussions as a result of the learners' low levels of confidence and their lack of effective exposure to the language. After introducing role play as teaching technique to engage the students in using the target language, a positive change was noticed. The students became more motivated and even the negotiation skills of shy students improved. Role play gave the students an impetus to communicate in a variety of authentic situations.

Question 54B.12: *Opportunities for learners to express own opinion or think critically*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.84), the majority of teachers allow for opportunities for their learners to express their own opinions or think critically in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. Half (60) of the teachers sometimes (code 2) provide these opportunities, whereas 41 or 34% of the teachers create these opportunities regularly (code 3). A small number of the teachers (eight or 7%) create activities which allow the learners to express their own opinion or think critically all the time (code 4). 10 or 8% of the respondents never use activities in their FAL classroom that create opportunities for learners to express their own opinion or think critically.

Activities where learners express their own opinions or are expected to think critically create opportunities for the learners to use the language in authentic situations. Where the pre-1994 curricula were aimed at rote learning and memorisation (see 3.3.2), C2005 and the RNCS aimed at developing critical thinking, reasoning, reflection and understanding. LO 5 of the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) refers to thinking and reasoning, which require the learners to be able to think critically and express their own opinions. In order to apply these

higher-order skills in their additional language, the learners should be quite proficient in the target language.

Question 54C.1: *Media texts, e.g. articles from newspapers or magazines*

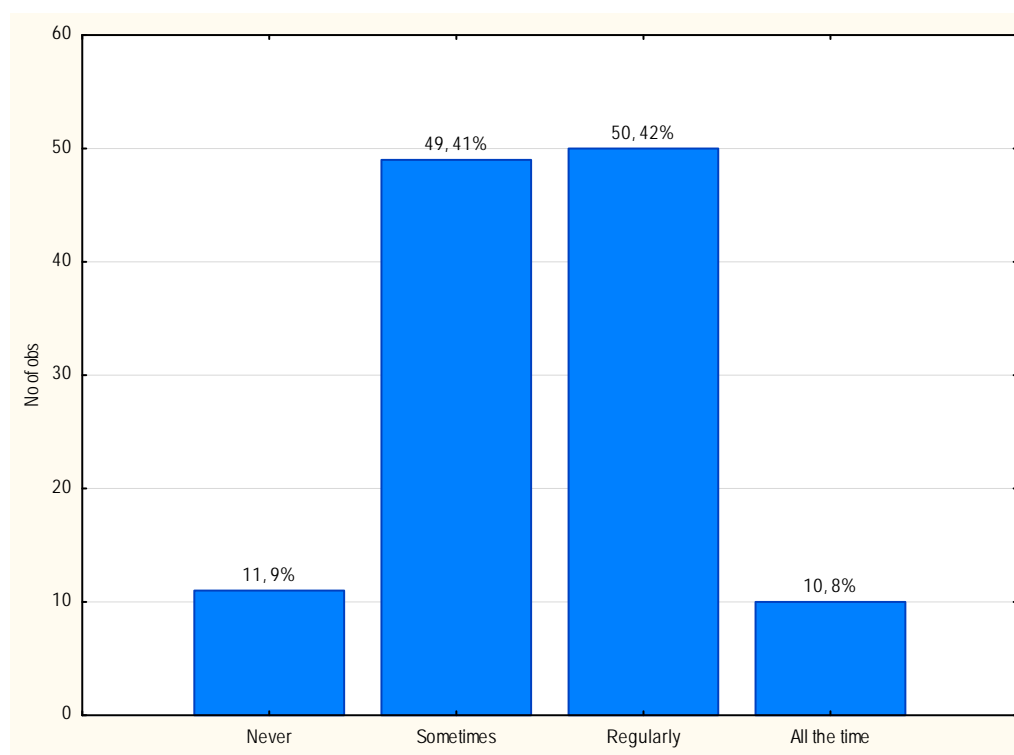


Figure 5.41: *Distribution of teachers using media texts in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms*

According to the distribution, an overwhelming majority of teachers make use of media texts in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. There is not a big difference between the number of teachers (49 or 41%) who indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use media texts and the number of teachers (50 or 42%) who regularly (code 3) use media texts in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL. Another 10 or 8% of respondents indicated that they use media texts all the time (code 4), whereas 11 or 9% never use media texts as teaching material in their Afrikaans FAL classroom.

One of the Assessment Standards for LO 3: Reading in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b: 67) is “Reading of media texts”. According to the data, the majority of teachers complied with this requirement of the curriculum at the time that the data collection was done. In Question 53 many teachers indicated that there is a shortage of appropriate reading texts they can use in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. The use of media texts which are easily accessible may be a solution to this challenge.

Thornbury (2011) is of the opinion that there is an underlying assumption that using language in meaningful and communicative ways would better prepare learners for authentic language use outside the classroom (see 3.4.3). Media texts are examples of authentic materials which the learners will encounter in the real world (Savignon 2002). Therefore, introducing the learners to these kinds of texts in the FAL classroom will enable the learners to interact more successfully with these materials in the real world.

Question 54C.2: *Cross-curriculum texts*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.86), a large majority of the teachers (73 or 60%) sometimes (code 2) use cross-curriculum texts in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. Another 25 or 21% indicated that they regularly (code 3) use these kinds of texts in their Afrikaans FAL teaching and 8 or 7% of teachers use cross-curriculum texts all the time. 15 or 12% of the teachers never (code 1) use cross-curriculum texts.

Using texts that link with other curriculum subjects may assist the teacher with the activation of the learners' background knowledge. If they have already covered a specific aspect in, for example, Life Orientation/Life Skills, the learners already understand the basic concepts and should be able to draw on their existing knowledge to participate in the FAL discussion. The acquisition of the new FAL vocabulary should also be easier as the understanding of the meaning of the words has already been internalised. A possible reason why so many teachers only sometimes or never use cross-curriculum texts may be that they follow the themes/chapters in the textbooks, which are most likely not aligned with the topics of the other learning areas/subjects, or they may find it difficult to find Afrikaans texts that match these topics.

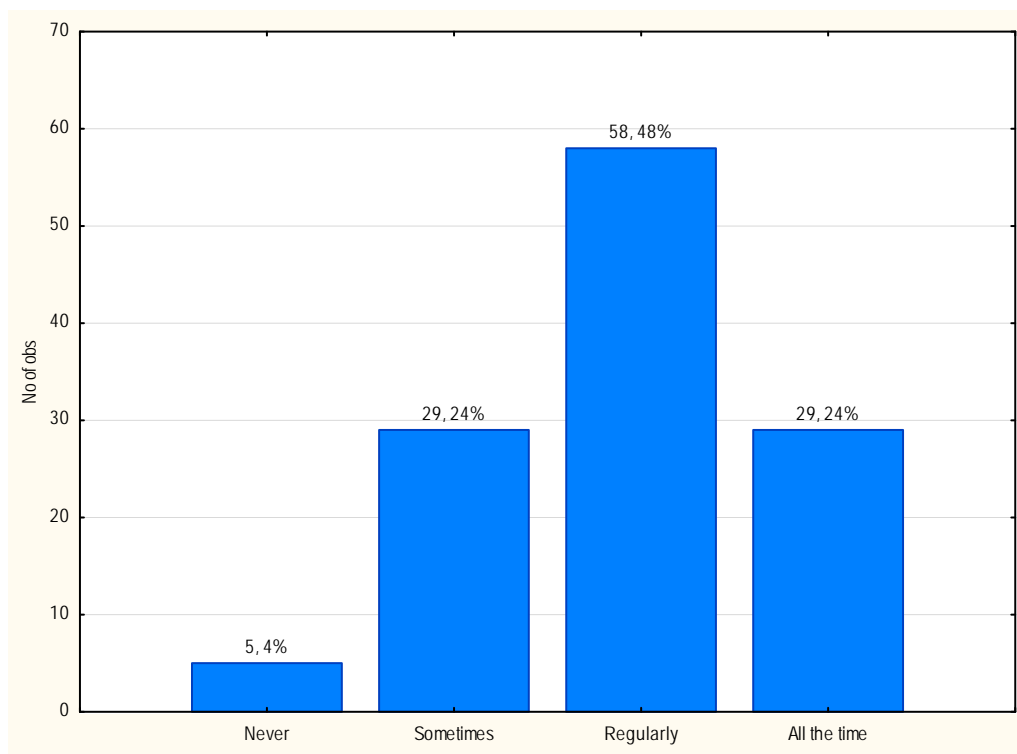
Question 54C.3: Textbooks

Figure 5.42: Distribution of teachers using textbooks as teaching materials in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms

According to the distribution, the vast majority of the teachers make use of textbooks in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. A majority of teachers (58 or 48%) use textbooks regularly (code 3). There is an equal distribution between the number of teachers (29 or 24%) who sometimes (code 2) use textbooks and the number of teachers who use textbooks all the time (code 4) in their FAL classroom. 5 or 4% of the teachers indicated that they never (code 1) use textbooks.

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) requires teachers to make use of a variety of texts when teaching Afrikaans FAL. A good textbook should be able to provide this variety of texts for the teacher and learner. The RNCS never prescribed any specific textbook to the teachers, neither was there a screening process of textbooks, as was the case with the CAPS-compliant textbooks. Textbooks do, however, provide some structure and guidance to the teachers as to how to organise and pace their lessons.

Question 54C.4: Teacher's own original texts

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.88), an overwhelming majority of the teachers make use of their own original texts in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 46 or 38% of the

teachers regularly (code 3) use their own original texts and another 26 or 21% of the teachers use this kind of text all the time (code 4). 38 or 31% of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use their own original texts and 11 or 9% of respondents never use their own original texts. The large number of teachers using their own original texts may be ascribed to the fact that teachers have difficulty in finding appropriate and grade-specific material (see Question 53).

The danger of teachers creating their own original texts may be that these texts are not authentic. In an attempt to create texts that are at their learners' proficiency level, teachers may over-simplify the language to make it more accessible for their learners. Unfortunately, authentic texts that the learners will find in the real world will not contain only language and vocabulary that they understand. As indicated in Question 9, the majority of these teachers' home language is English and quite a few of them opted to complete the questionnaire and conduct the interview in English, which may be an indication of their own confidence and competence in using the target language. As discussed in 3.6.1, the FAL teacher need not necessarily be a mother tongue speaker of the target language, but the FAL teacher must be very confident and competent in the language to teach the target language. It is of the utmost importance that when the teachers create their own original texts, they ensure that the language that is used in the texts is one hundred percent correct. These texts will serve as an example to the learners and the learners will base their own language production on it.

Question 54C.5: *Visual or auditory texts*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.89), 90% of the teachers make use of visual or auditory texts to some extent. A great majority (60 or 50%) of the teachers indicated that they sometimes (code 2) use this type of text in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. Another 37 or 31% of respondents regularly (code 3) use visual or auditory texts and 11 or 9% of the teachers use these texts all the time (code 4). 12 or 10% of the teachers never use visual or auditory texts as teaching and learning materials in their Afrikaans FAL classroom. This question may have been interpreted differently by the different respondents. In order to clarify the visual component of the question, it probably would have been less confusing to the respondents if visual and auditory were replaced with multimedia.

The RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) recommends the use of multimedia in the FAL classroom. The importance and advantages of using a variety of LTSM in the FAL classroom have been discussed in 3.5. In addition, the use of multimedia in the FAL classroom will contribute to the learners' enjoyment and create a non-threatening atmosphere in the FAL

classroom, which will in turn lower the affective filter and enhance the language acquisition process.

Question 55

Please specify any method/activity/material not mentioned above that you use regularly

Only 12 teachers responded to this question. All of them mentioned methods, activities and materials that have been discussed in Question 54 e.g.:

“Textbooks; own worksheets”

“Gebruik komperklas - Cami Reader en ander programme.”

“Ons gebruik werk uit meer as een handboek.”

“Smart board”

“Prente uit tydskrifte.”

“Video's, Tape cassette”

Question 56

Which of the following options describes best what your learners do most of the time in the Afrikaans FAL class?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.90), no clear pattern could be established. There is not a big difference between the responses to codes 1, 2 and 3. 31 or 34% of the teachers indicated that the learners in their classes spend most of their time in the FAL class participating in classroom discussions (code 3). In another 30 or 33% of the respondents' classes the learners work quietly on their own exercises in their books (code 2) most of the time. 26 or 29% of the teachers said that their learners spend most of their time in the FAL class communicating with each other in order to complete a joint activity (e.g. in pairs or groups) (code 1). In no class is most of the time spent on the drawing and colouring in of pictures (code 4).

Both codes 1 and code 3 indicate that interaction and communication take place most of the time in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms. This is also an indication that a learner-centred approach is followed in these classes (see 3.4.3). It is alarming to note that in 33% of the classes the learners spend most of their time working quietly on their own exercises in their books. If most of the time is spent on individual written activities, it means that these learners

do not have the opportunity to interact in the target language with the teacher, in the form of class discussions, or with their peers in pair or group activities. In Donato's (1994: 52) study to determine how additional language development is brought about on the social plane, he discovered that "scaffolding occurs routinely as students work together on language learning tasks." According to Long (1996) and Brown (2001), the communicative purpose of language forces teachers to create opportunities for genuine interaction in the classroom (see 3.4.3).

Question 57

*Which language learning activity/task/event do your learners **enjoy** most in the additional language class?*

The teachers listed a variety of activities and tasks their learners enjoy most in the Afrikaans FAL class. The five activities that the learners enjoy most are: (1) role play, (2) oral presentations with the use of aids e.g. demonstrate how to ..., (3) listening to stories, songs, rhymes, poems and acting them out, (4) class discussions, and (5) completing tasks in pairs and groups. The data are an indication that the learners prefer activities where they are actively involved and are required to use the language for communicative purposes. Although reading, writing and language activities were listed by some of the teachers as activities their learners enjoy most, they were not the most popular activities in the FAL classroom.

Question 58

When planning the teaching and learning for the additional language class, how useful do you find each of the following sources?

Question 58.1: Teachers' guides accompanying a textbook

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.91), there is no clear difference between the number of teachers (46 or 41%) who find the teachers' guides to textbooks useful (code 3) and the number of teachers (44 or 40%) who find some aspects of the teachers' guides to textbooks useful. Another 17 or 15% of the respondents find the teachers' guides very useful (code 4), whereas 4 or 4% of the teachers find these teachers' guides not useful (code 1).

As mentioned earlier, the textbooks and teachers' guides written for the RNCS were not screened by the DoE and, except for the quality control by the publishers, there was little, if any, input from the various education departments. If the teachers are not familiar with the

language teaching methodology implemented in a particular textbook, it will also be difficult for them to incorporate the foreign methodology into their teaching. The instructions to authors and publishers of CAPS-compliant textbooks were to provide step-by-step guidelines on how to implement the activity (see 3.5.1). These guidelines have to be in sufficient detail “to enable the teacher to implement the activity. However, they need to be flexible so that teachers can easily adjust the activity to suit their learners’ needs” (Department of Basic Education 2012:13).

Question 58.2: RNCS document

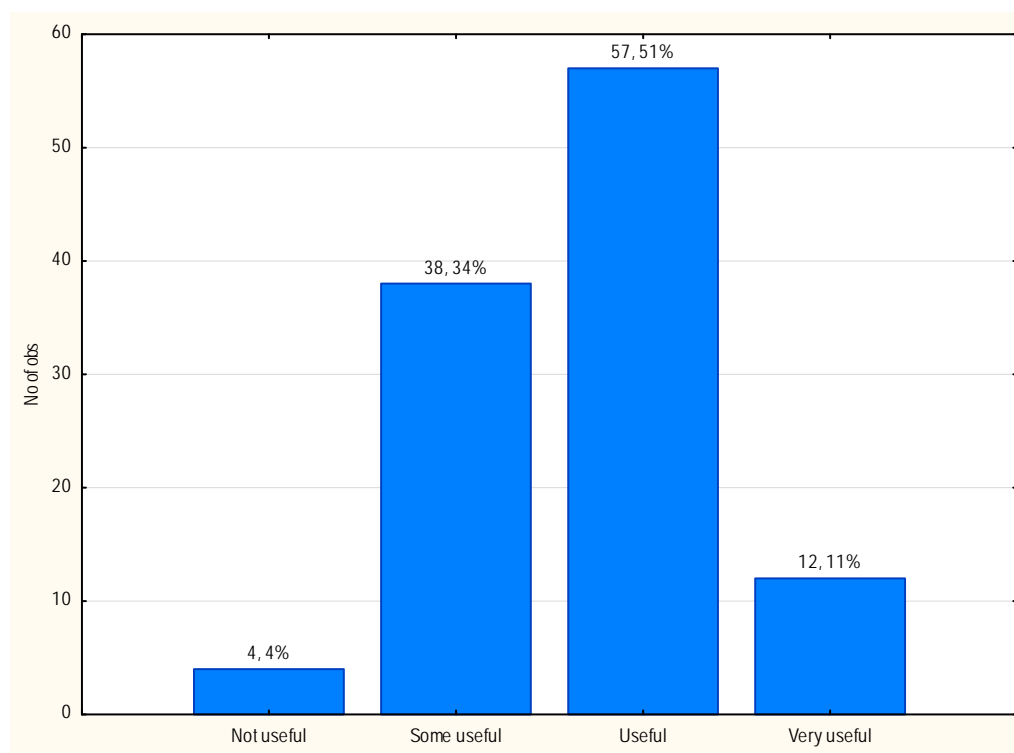


Figure 5.43: Distribution of teachers finding RNCS documents useful in their planning

According to the distribution, the majority of teachers (57 or 51%) find the RNCS documents useful (code 3) when planning their Afrikaans FAL teaching and learning. Another 12 or 11% of the teachers find the RNCS documents very useful (code 4) for their planning of Afrikaans FAL lessons. 38 or 34% of the respondents indicated that some aspects of the RNCS documents are useful (code 2), whereas 4 or 4% of the teachers indicated that they find the documents not useful (code 1) for their planning.

To use these documents optimally for planning teaching and learning activities, the teachers should have a thorough knowledge of the content of the documents. The data from Question 47 indicate that the vast majority of the teachers (84%) are only fairly familiar with the content

of the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL. The RNCS was the curriculum of the day at the time of the data collection. All the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards have been set out in these documents, but as reported by the task team that reviewed the RNCS and its implementation, the documents were long and unwieldy and not user-friendly. The task team also found the teacher training was “superficial, and failed to clarify the points of departure and newness of the RNCS, neither did it address the cry for training in subject/learning area content” (Department of Education 2009: 20). The responses from the teachers (see Question 21) also confirm these findings that the teacher training was not sufficient.

Question 58.3: *WCED materials, e.g. exemplars, Foundations for Learning, Blue Box*

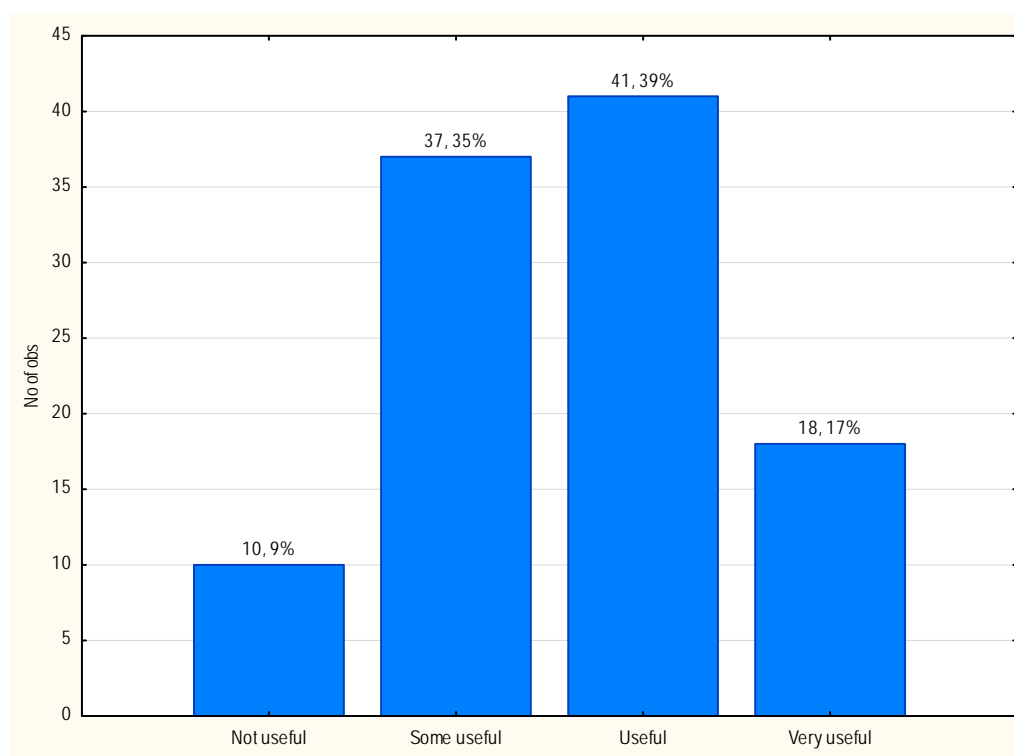


Figure 5.44: *Distribution of teachers finding WCED materials useful in their planning*

According to the distribution, there is a similarity between the teachers' responses to this question and Question 58.2 (see Figure 5.41). 41 or 39% of the teachers indicated that they find the materials provided by the WCED useful (code 3) and another 37 or 35% of the respondents regard some aspects (code 2) of the WCED materials as useful. 18 or 17% of the teachers indicated that they find the WCED documents very useful (code 4), whereas 10 or 9% indicated that the WCED materials are not useful (code 1).

The Foundations for Learning (Republic of South Africa 2008) had as its aim to provide clear guidance to teachers regarding daily/weekly activities for literacy teaching. Unfortunately little

attention is given in the documents to the teaching of the FAL (see 3.3.4). When asked whether the Department provides any in-service training or information regarding developments in additional language methodology, an overwhelming 82% of teachers said no (see Question 28). The researcher is concerned that these documents, which were produced at great financial cost, are rated by only 17% of the respondents as “very useful”. The Foundations for Learning is also available only in English, which makes the Afrikaans FAL teachers’ task even more difficult.

Question 58.4: *Learners’ textbooks*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.94), 47 or 41% of the teachers find the learners’ textbooks useful (code 3) for their FAL planning. Another 37 or 32% indicated that the learners’ textbooks are very useful (code 4) when planning teaching and learning for the FAL, and 28 or 24% of the respondents said that they find some aspects useful (code 2). Only 3 or 3% of the teachers indicated that the learners’ textbooks are not useful (code 1) when planning teaching and learning for the Afrikaans FAL class. These data suggest that the majority of teachers do make use of the learners’ textbooks to guide them in their planning of teaching and learning for Afrikaans FAL.

Following the textbook day by day may lessen the burden on the teachers to search for exciting and appropriate texts and activities to present in the class, which would allow them time to concentrate on the methodology they use for teaching the FAL. In the teachers’ responses to Question 53 they indicated that the lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials is one of the main factors impacting negatively on the learners’ progress in the FAL. This may therefore be one of the reasons why so many teachers rely so heavily on the available textbooks for their planning. Another reason may also be related to the lack of FAL-specific training of teachers. In response to Question 21 only 42% of the teachers indicated that they attended any in-service training specific to the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL. Without the necessary training, the teachers may not be competent enough or feel confident in planning their own lessons from scratch.

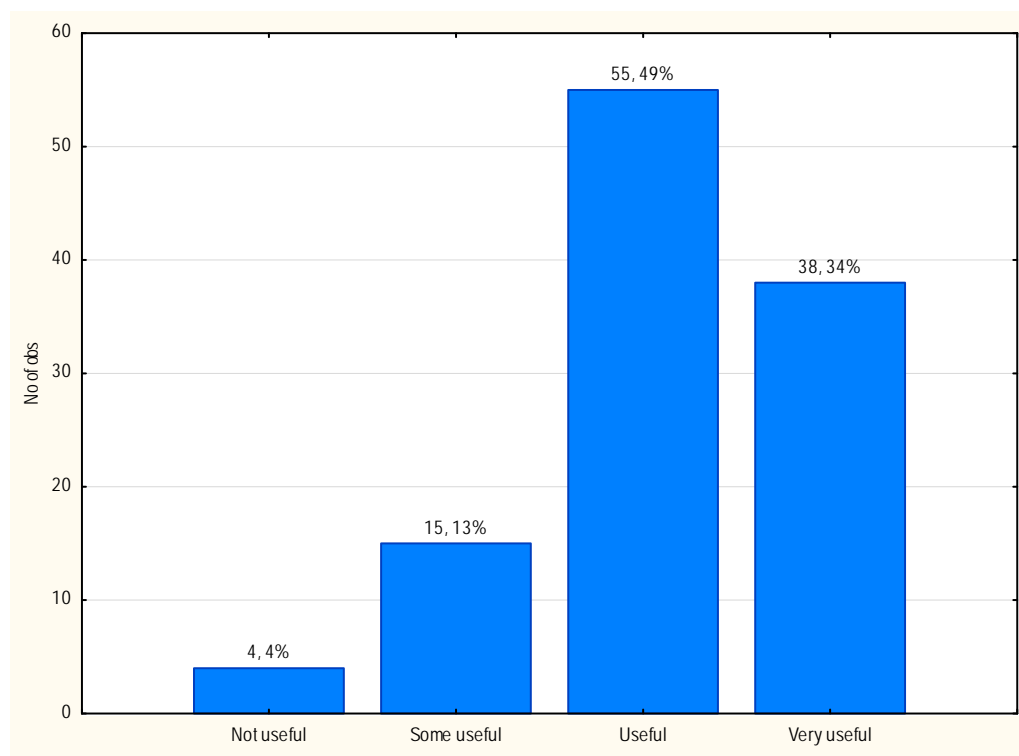
Question 58.5: Grade planning schedules

Figure 5.45: Distribution of teachers finding grade planning schedules useful

According to the distribution, the vast majority of respondents find the grade planning schedules provided by the WCED as either useful or very useful. 55 or 49% of the teachers indicated that these schedules are useful (code 3) when planning teaching and learning for the Afrikaans FAL class and another 38 or 34% said that these schedules are very useful (code 4). 15 or 13% of the teachers indicated that some of the aspects are useful (code 2), whereas only 4 or 4% of the teachers indicated that they find the grade planning schedules not useful (code 1). These grade planning schedules were supplied by the WCED and provided the teachers with detailed information on what to teach when. The responses of the teachers indicate that they find these documents of great value for their planning of FAL lessons. In response to Question 27 a number of teachers mentioned that the work schedules are available only in English. Translating these documents adds to the teachers' already heavy workload. The only negative about these grade planning schedules may be that the teachers' creativity and own initiative are somewhat constrained.

Question 58.6: Assessment criteria (RNCS) and materials, e.g. old test papers

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.96), the vast majority (62 or 53%) of the teachers find the assessment criteria and other assessment materials useful (code 3) when

planning the teaching and learning for the FAL class. Another 20 or 17% of the teachers indicated that they find assessment criteria very useful (code 4) and 29 or 25% of the respondents find that only some aspects (code 2) of the assessment criteria and other assessment materials are useful. 6 or 5% of the respondents indicated that they do not find these sources useful (code 1) when planning the teaching and learning for the FAL class. The data indicate that 95% of the teachers use the assessment criteria or assessment standards as set out in the RNCS or other assessment material to assist them with their planning for Afrikaans FAL, which confirms the data from Question 8, which indicated that only 6% of the teachers felt that the assessment standards are too high.

Question 58.7: *Own materials sourced from library*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.97) the vast majority of teachers find their own materials sourced from the library useful to some degree when planning for the FAL class. 53 or 47% of the teachers indicated that they regard their own materials sourced from the library as useful (code 3) and another 31 or 28% of the teachers said that their own materials sourced from the library are very useful (code 4). 23 or 21% of the teachers think that some aspects of these materials are useful (code 2), whereas 5 or 4% of the respondents regard these materials as not useful (code 1). The fact that so many teachers indicated that they do find these materials useful or very useful means that at least 75% of the teachers at times source their own materials from the library. By making use of library materials in their teaching of the FAL, the teachers expose the learners in their classes to a variety of authentic texts and materials. This exposure will prepare the learners to interact with the target language in the outside world (see 3.4.3).

Question 58.8: *Common errors identified from learners' assessment*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.98), the vast majority (66 or 57%) of the teachers find the learners' errors useful (code 3), but not very useful for their planning of teaching and learning in the FAL. 27 or 23% of the teachers find the learners' common errors very useful (code 4) for planning teaching and learning in the FAL class and another 20 or 17% find some aspects of the learners' errors useful (code 2). 3 or 3% of the teachers indicated that they find the learners' common errors not useful (code 1) when planning teaching and learning for the FAL class, although explicit error correction is not encouraged in CLT.

As discussed in 3.4.4.3, Richards and Rodgers (1986: 132) regard errors as part of the "naturalistic developmental processes" and they argue that similar developmental errors

occur during acquisition, no matter what the mother tongue of the learners is. Krashen (1987: 11) is of the opinion that “error correction has little or no effect on subconscious acquisition, but is thought to be useful for conscious learning”, which will help the learner to deduce the right form or rule (see 3.4.4.1). Overt error correction can also have a negative impact on the learners’ confidence and attitude towards the target language; therefore it would be wise of the teaches rather to use the common errors made by the learners and design language activities and games around those, which may be fun, in order to allow the learners to internalise the language structures and rules. Guenette (2012) is of the opinion that this indirect way of error correction is preferable, as it involves the learners in cognitive problem solving.

Question 58.9: *Media, e.g. newspaper, magazines, etc.*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.99), the majority (53 or 46%) of the teachers find media useful (code 3) when planning the teaching and learning for the FAL class. Another 22 or 19% of the respondents indicated that they find media very useful (code 4) when planning FAL teaching and learning. 32 or 28% of the respondents felt that only some aspects are useful (code 2) when using media for their planning, whereas 8 or 7% of the teachers find media not useful (code 1) for their planning.

In 3.4 the need to develop the learners’ ability to communicate in authentic situations outside the classroom using authentic language was discussed. Media, both printed and audio-visual, will help the teacher to bring the outside world into the classroom and expose the learners to language used in the real world. It will also grab the interest of the learners to read and listen to relevant, up-to-date texts that they can identify with. Although the teachers indicated in responses to Question 53 that there is a shortage of appropriate Afrikaans teaching and learning material, it seems as if most of them do make use of the available printed media, as prescribed in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a).

Question 58.10: *Learners’ textbooks for other subjects*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.100), the majority of the teachers (47 or 43%) find only some aspects (code 2) of learners’ textbooks for other subjects useful for their planning and 27 or 25% of the respondent find these textbooks not useful (code 1) for planning for Afrikaans FAL. 30 or 27% of the teachers indicated that the textbooks for other subjects are useful (code 3) for their planning and only 6 or 5% of the teachers find textbooks for other subjects very useful (code 4) for planning teaching and learning for Afrikaans FAL.

As 95% of the teachers teach in schools where English is the LoLT (see Question 3), it is understandable that the teachers will find it difficult to use the textbooks for other subjects in their planning, as these textbooks will all be in English (see Question 54C.2). If they want to use the texts, they will have to translate them for use in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. They can, however, use the textbooks to determine what topics are covered in the other subjects to inform their own selection of themes or topics for their Afrikaans FAL lessons. This will allow the learners to draw on their prior knowledge during discussions on related topics in the Afrikaans FAL class.

Question 59

Thinking of your term planning, how do you organise the content?

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.101), the teachers indicated that they organise the content that they plan to teach according to the following aspects: language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) 15.9%; grammar structures, e.g. plurals, tenses 14.79%; outcomes according to RNCS 12.08%; assessment standards according to RNCS 11.76%; topics, e.g. "My body" 10.65%; language tasks 10.33%; language notions, e.g. time/place 7.95%; situations, e.g. "In the classroom" 7.95%; language functions, e.g. to greet, to identify 7.95%. 4 of the teachers make use of other ways to organise the content for their teaching Afrikaans FAL. Most teachers selected more than one category according to which they organise the content when planning their Afrikaans FAL lessons.

The RNCS, the curriculum at the time of the data collection, prescribe the Learning Outcomes (LOs) that learners in each grade had to be able to demonstrate and the Assessment Standards (AS) which the learners had to achieve in each grade. It is evident from the teachers' responses that they are more likely to arrange the content of their FAL teaching according to the four language skills, which are also addressed in the LOs, grammatical structures and the RNCS requirements.

When one studies the literature, it becomes clear that CLT (see 3.4.3) moves away from an emphasis on the structural. It concentrates on getting learners to do things with language, to express concepts and to carry out communicative acts of various kinds, e.g. greeting or identifying. The content of a language course is no longer designed in terms of forms, words and sentence patterns, but in terms of the concepts, or notions, and communicative functions (Widdowson 1990). Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) believe that if dialogues are used in the FAL class, they should revolve around communicative functions and should preferably not be memorised. Freeman and Freeman (1994:153) support the emphasis on functions when they

maintain that because “language develops in contexts of functional use,” teachers should “create situations in which all their students use language for a variety of purposes and with a variety of people” (see 3.4.3). The teachers, however, indicated that language notions, situational language and language functions are the least emphasised when they organise the content for their teaching.

5.2.8.1 *Summary*

This section focused on the teaching methodology used by the teachers in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. It was established that the majority of the teachers have a great deal of freedom in deciding on the teaching methodology used in their FAL teaching. The majority of teachers regard most of the listed language aspects as very important for effective teaching in the FAL classroom. The only two aspects that the teachers do not rate as very important are ‘speaking fluently’ and ‘writing accurately’. The three most important factors identified by the teachers that have a negative impact on the learners’ progress in Afrikaans FAL are the learners’ negative attitude towards Afrikaans, the learners’ lack of exposure outside the classroom to the target language, and the shortage of age- and language-level-appropriate teaching and learning materials in Afrikaans.

The data point to the fact that a great majority of the teachers still make use of practices that remind one of the audio-lingual method of language teaching, e.g. choral repetition, vocabulary lists, focusing on doing corrections, translation and prepared orals. The teachers are still very fond of using worksheets, which may limit the time for learners to be exposed to real communicative interactions with the teacher or their peers. Although teachers do make use of the traditional print media and textbooks as teaching and learning materials in their Afrikaans FAL teaching, only a small number of the teachers use audio-visual material to enhance their teaching. Learners are mostly involved in interactive activities, where they communicate with each other or participate in classroom discussions; however, in a third of the classrooms the learners mostly work quietly on their own without the opportunity to engage in authentic communication.

The majority of the teachers find the curriculum documents and other planning materials provided by the WCED – e.g. RNCS documents, exemplars and grade planning schedules – useful or very useful. They also make extensive use of other sources, e.g. library materials, media and common errors made by learners, for planning their FAL teaching. The teachers’ lack of knowledge of new developments in FAL teaching strategies and methodologies is evident from the way in which they organise the content that they teach. The focus is mainly on the language skills, grammatical structures and RNCS prescriptions (LOs and ASs). Less

attention is given to aspects such as situational language and language functions and notions.

5.2.9 Availability and use of learning and teaching support material

This section focuses on the LTSM (learning and teaching support material) that is readily available to, and used by, the teachers in their Afrikaans FAL teaching.

Question 60.1

Does each learner in the class have his/her own copy of the textbook?

According to the data (see Appendix J.102), a small majority (46 or 56%) of the teachers indicated that each learner in their classes has his/her own copy of the textbook (code 2) that is used in the Afrikaans FAL class. It is alarming that 36 or 44% of the respondents said that not every learner in their classes has his/her own copy of the textbook (code 1). In Question 56 33% of the teachers indicated that their learners spend most of their time working quietly on their own exercises in their books. In many of these classes learners will have to share a textbook, which means that not every learner can take their own textbook home and therefore will have even less exposure to the language. This in turn has a negative impact on the pace at which language acquisition will take place.

Question 60.2

Are the textbooks used generally appropriate for your classes?

According to the data (see Appendix J.103), the overwhelming majority of teachers are in agreement that the textbooks they use in their Afrikaans FAL classes are generally appropriate for their learners (code 1). Only 13 or 18% of the teachers are of the opinion that the textbooks used are generally not appropriate for their classes (code 2). Having LTSM which are at the appropriate level of the learners' proficiency will make the teachers' task much easier, because they will have to translate or explain less. The learners will also enjoy working from the textbooks as they understand more and this may contribute towards lowering the learners' affective filter (see 3.4.4.5), which will in turn make them more receptive to the input they are exposed to.

Question 61

*If textbooks are **not** mainly used, what print material do you **mainly** use instead of textbooks? (The respondents could select more than one option)*

According to the data (see Appendix J.104), the two most used kinds of print material in the Afrikaans FAL classroom when textbooks are not used, are the teachers' own worksheets and photocopies from different textbooks. The majority of the teachers (73) mainly use their own worksheets (code 3) when they do not use a textbook. 55 respondents indicated that they mainly use photocopies from different textbooks (code 4). Another 13 teachers use published work cards/worksheets and 11 teachers use pre-printed workbooks. 2% of the teachers indicated that they use no other print material (code 6). The 6% of the teachers who said that they mainly use other (code 5) print material when textbooks are not used mentioned the following print materials: computer programs (which are not examples of print material); newspapers and magazines, e.g. *Huisgenoot*; texts with grammar questions (which could fall under teachers' own worksheets). The data point to the fact that these teachers do make use of a variety of print materials in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL. It is unfortunately not clear how much of these print materials that are used include authentic text which will expose the learners to language that they will encounter outside the classroom.

Question 62

Do you ever use electronic or audio-visual material for teaching FAL?

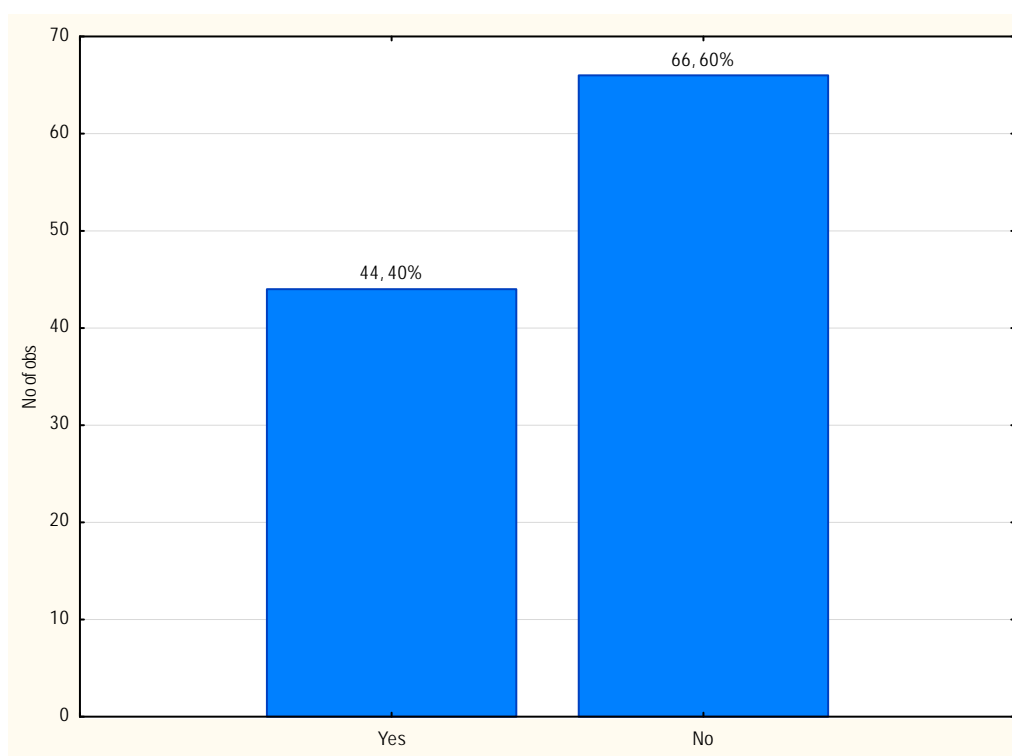


Figure 5.46: *Distribution of teachers' use of electronic or audio-visual materials*

According to the distribution, the majority (66 or 60%) of the teachers answered no (code 2) to this question. 44 or 40% of the teachers answered yes (code 1) to this question. There is a positive correlation between the teacher response to this question and Question 54B.2, where 40% of teachers indicated that they never use computer-based activities. In Question 54C.5 only 10% of the respondents indicated that they never use visual or auditory texts, and the rest (90%) of the teachers said that they do make use of visual or auditory texts to some extent. The reason for this discrepancy may be that the teachers did not read the question properly and focused only on the electronic material. Another explanation may be that the teachers did not interpret materials and texts as the same thing.

In order for the learners to acquire the FAL, they must be exposed to the target language (see 3.4.3, 3.4.4.4 and 3.4.5). Exposure can occur through listening to (audio) or reading/viewing (visual) the language. When the two modes are combined in audio-visual input, the visual input will assist the learner in making sense of the auditory input. The visual will also make the learning experience more enjoyable for the learner. The use of electronic

or computer-based teaching materials will enhance the teachers' teaching and have a positive effect on the learners' acquisition of the target language (see Question 54b.2).

Question 63

Do you experience a shortage of any of the following teaching resources for the FAL?

Question 63.1: Textbooks

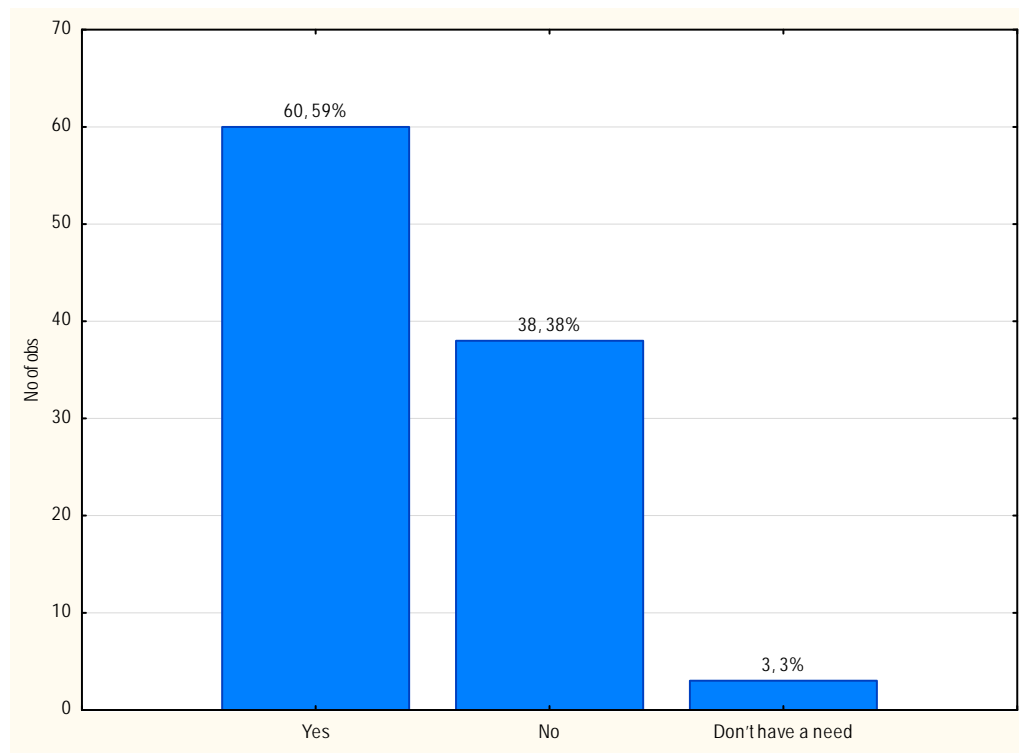


Figure 5.47: *Distribution of teachers experiencing a shortage of textbooks*

According to the distribution, it is clear that there is a shortage of textbooks in the Grade 4 – 6 FAL classrooms in Western Cape urban schools. 60 or 59% of the teachers indicated that they experience a shortage of textbooks in their FAL classes by selecting yes (code 1), whereas 38 or 38% respondents answered no (code 2), indicating that they did not experience a shortage of textbooks. Although only 3 or 3% of the teachers indicated that they don't have a need (code 3) for textbooks in their Afrikaans FAL classroom; it is interesting to note that there are teachers who, by implication, do not use textbooks in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL. It was evident from the teachers' responses in Question 60.1 that not all learners have their own copy of the textbook used in class and the responses to Question 63.1 confirm the need for textbooks in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms in Grade 4 – 6 Western Cape urban schools.

Question 63.2: Magazines

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.107), there is a shortage of Afrikaans magazines to be used as teaching resource in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 54 or 53% of the teachers answered yes (code 1) to this question, indicating that they do not have enough magazines to use as teaching resource. 40 or 39% of the respondents indicated that they do not experience a shortage of magazines as teaching resource selecting no (code 2) as their answer. Once again only a small number (8 or 8%) of the teachers indicated that they don't have a need (code 3) for magazines as teaching resource. By implication these 8 teachers said that they do not use magazines as teaching resource in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. These data correspond positively with the data from Question 58.9, where 8 teachers indicated that they do not find media, e.g. newspapers, magazines, etc., useful when planning Afrikaans FAL teaching and learning activities. The learners in the classes of teachers who do not use magazines as teaching materials or resources may not get the opportunity to be exposed to the authentic language that they will encounter in the real world outside the classroom (see 3.4, 3.5.1 and Question 58.9).

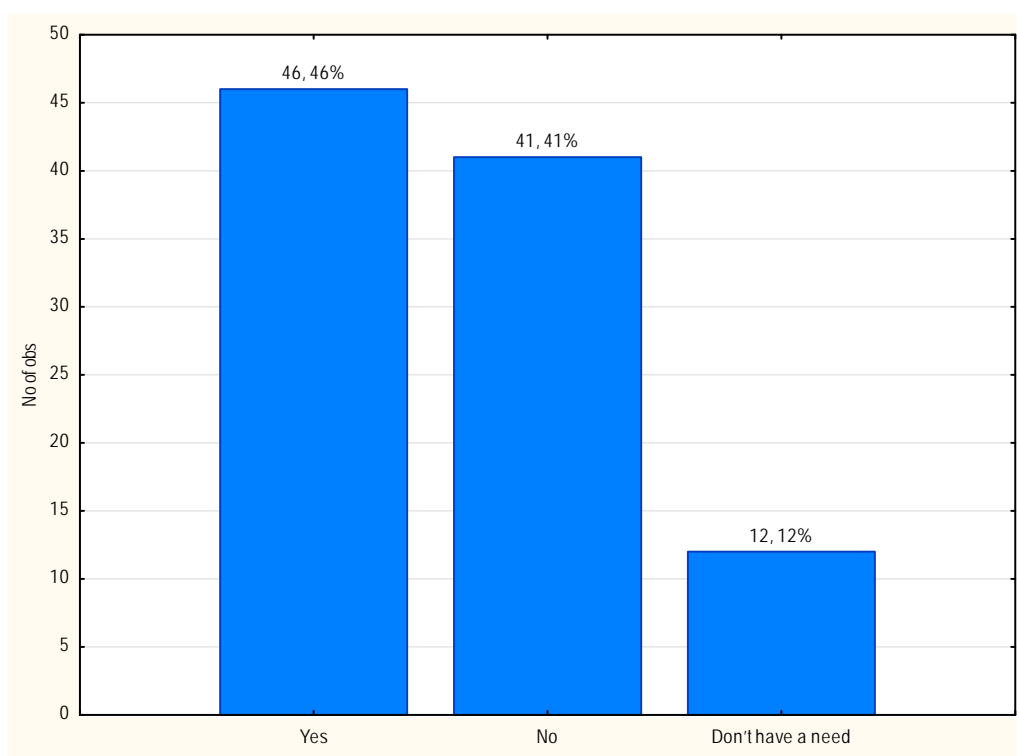
Question 63.3: Newspapers

Figure 5.48: Distribution of teachers experiencing a shortage of newspapers

According to the distribution, there is not a big difference between the number of teachers who indicated that they experience a shortage of newspapers as teaching resources and those who indicated that they have enough newspapers to use as resources for their Afrikaans FAL teaching. 46 or 46% of the teachers selected yes (code 1) to indicate that there is a shortage of newspapers as teaching resource in their FAL classrooms, whereas 41 or 41% of the respondents selected no (code 2) to point out that they do not experience a shortage of newspapers as teaching resource in their classrooms. 12 or 12% of the teachers indicated that they don't have a need (code 3) for the use of newspapers in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. This number is slightly higher than the 8 teachers who do not have a need for magazines as teaching resources in their classrooms (see Question 63.2). Newspapers, like magazines, can provide authentic language as input to the FAL learner (see 3.4) and are readily available. Die Burger of a few days before is available at a reduced price to schools and will be delivered on order and one newspaper can be used for an extended period of time as a teaching and learning resource. One newspaper can also be used by a group of learners, so fewer newspapers will be needed. Using another print medium as text will also enthuse the learners, as the newspaper articles report on recent and real-life issues.

Question 63.4: Audio-visual material

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.108), the vast majority (76 or 72%) of the teachers indicated that there is a shortage of audio-visual material as teaching resources in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms, whereas 21 or 20% of the teachers reported that they do not (code 2) experience a shortage of audio-visual material in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 8 or 8% of the teachers indicated that they do not have a need (code 3) for audio-visual material. As discussed in 3.4.3, 3.4.4.4 and 3.4.5, exposure to the target language in authentic situations is of great importance in the acquisition process. To assist the teacher in producing authentic language, the audio-visual electronic media can be used to great effect. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) both require the teacher to use a variety of texts, including audio-visual texts, as teaching and learning material in the Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Question 63.5: Readers

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.110), a great majority (74 or 69%) of the teachers indicated that they experience a shortage (code 1) of readers as teaching resources in their Afrikaans FAL classes, whereas 31 or 29% of the teachers indicated that there is not (code 2) a shortage of readers in their FAL classrooms. Only 3 or 3% of the teachers said that they don't have a need (code 3) for readers in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms.

In Question 53 the teachers identified the shortage of suitable textbooks and other age- and language-level-appropriate materials as the third most important factor that impacts negatively on the learners' progress in Afrikaans. The readers are grade- and age-specific and may also be graded in order to accommodate the different reading levels of learners in one grade. A shortage of these readers in the FAL classroom will make very difficult the teachers' task of finding reading material which is tailor-made for all their learners in a specific grade.

Question 63.6: *Fiction, story/picture books*

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.111), there is a strong correspondence between the results of Question 63.6 and Question 63.5. In response to Question 63.6 70 or 70% of the teachers selected yes (code 1) to indicate that they experience a shortage of Afrikaans fiction and story/picture books in their FAL classrooms. 29 or 29% of the teachers said that there is no shortage (code 2) of fiction and story/picture books in their FAL classrooms. Only one teacher indicated that he/she does not have a need (code 3) for these books in his/her Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Reading is one of the learning outcomes of the RNCS and one of the language skills on which the CAPS focus. As mentioned in 3.2.3, South African learners' reading skills are rated as among the lowest in the world. In 3.3.5 it is mentioned that learners learn to read by doing a lot of reading (Department of Basic Education 2011b). Learners therefore must be afforded as many opportunities as possible to engage with books. Young learners will enjoy reading in their FAL more when they can read from picture books, where the pictures assist them with meaning making of the printed words. Story books will also increase the learners' enjoyment of reading as well as impact positively on their creative writing skills.

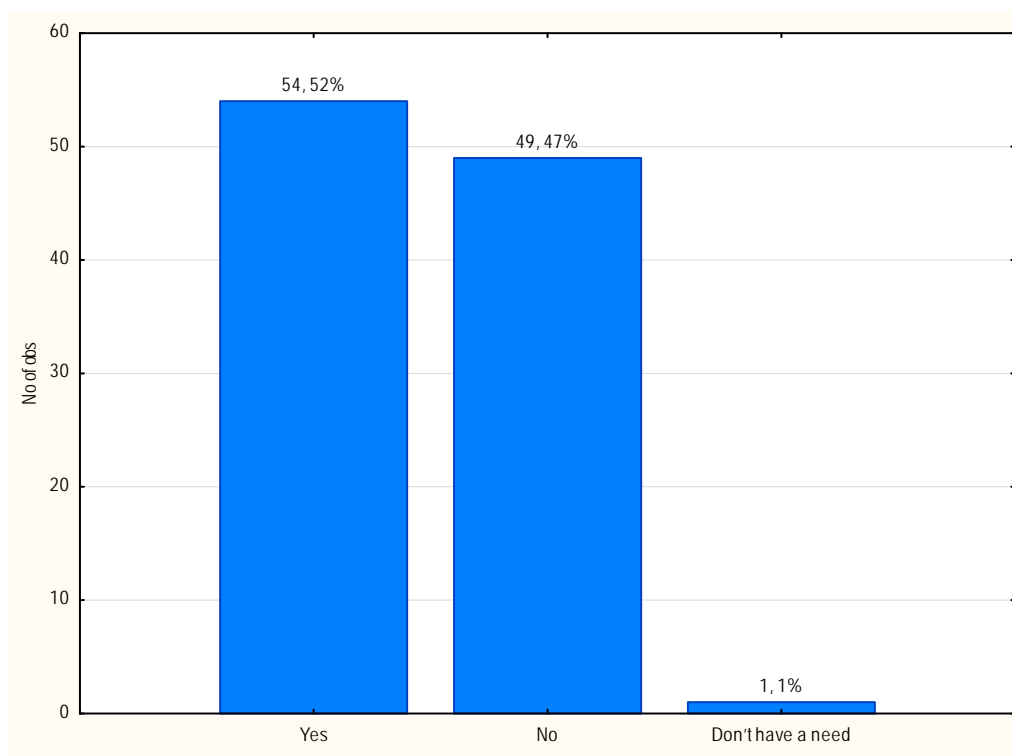
Question 63.7: Dictionaries

Figure 5.49: Distribution of teachers experiencing a shortage of dictionaries

From the distribution it is evident that more than half (54 or 52%) of the teachers indicated that they do have a shortage (code 1) of dictionaries in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. 49 or 47% of the teacher answered no (code 2) to this question, which means that these teachers do not experience a shortage of dictionaries in their FAL classrooms. Only one teacher indicated that he/she does not have a need (code 3) for dictionaries in his/her Afrikaans FAL classroom.

Dictionaries are mentioned frequently in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) and CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011b) as recommended texts for the development of various skills, e.g. reading, writing, etc. If there are not enough dictionaries in the FAL classroom it makes the FAL teachers' task so much more difficult, as the teachers now become the 'dictionary'. With a shortage of dictionaries in the FAL classroom the learners will also not develop dictionary skills, which may impact negatively on the learners' spelling.

Question 63.8: Non-fiction/information books

According to the distribution (see Appendix J.113), the vast majority (68 or 69%) of the teachers responded yes (code 1) to this question, indicating that they do experience a

shortage of non-fiction/information books in their Afrikaans FAL classroom. Only 22 or 22% of the responded indicated that they do not (code 2) have a shortage of these texts in their FAL classroom, and 8 or 8% of the respondents indicated that they do not have a need for such texts in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms. Both the RNCS and CAPS propose that learners must be exposed to a variety of listening and reading texts and should also be able to produce a variety of written texts, which include factual texts or texts which convey information. These non-fiction or information books can serve as examples for the learners on which to model their own writing.

5.2.9.1 Summary

This section dealt with the availability and use of learner support material in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. Although the majority of the teachers indicated that each learner in their classes has his/her own textbook, the data reflected that in 44% of the classes not every learner has his/her own copy of the textbook. The majority of the teachers are in agreement that the textbooks are generally appropriate for their classes. The teachers also make use of other print material as sources for planning their Afrikaans FAL teaching, mainly their own worksheets and photocopies from different textbooks. It is apparent that the majority of teachers do not make use of electronic or audio-visual materials for teaching Afrikaans FAL. The data show that the majority of Afrikaans FAL teachers experience a shortage of all kinds of teaching resources in their classrooms.

5.2.10 Teachers' final comments

Question 64

Do you have any other comment that you wish to make regarding teaching Afrikaans as an Additional Language?

The teachers' responses to this question were a repetition of problems and needs that they had already addressed in other questions. The most important aspects that were raised are:

- There is a dire need for enough and appropriate LTSM provided by the WCED;
- In-service training from the WCED in new developments with regard to Afrikaans FAL teaching methodologies, the practical implementation of the curriculum as well as strategies for dealing with learners who are not motivated to learn Afrikaans or have a negative attitude towards the target language;
- The circulars and information, e.g. work schedules, from the WCED with regard to

FAL teaching should be provided in Afrikaans and not in English only;

- The teachers request that Afrikaans receives the same amount of time and attention as allocated to English;
- Only teachers who are proficient in Afrikaans and enjoy teaching Afrikaans should be appointed to teach the subject, as those teachers who lack motivation or proficiency have difficulty in teaching Afrikaans as FAL. It is usually these teachers who do not use the target language as medium of instruction;
- Too much time is spent on assessment and that leaves the teachers with too little time for teaching.

5.3 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF QUALITATIVE DATA

Interviews were conducted with 17 participants in order to enhance and elaborate on the initial data gathered from the quantitative questionnaires. The data gathered from these interviews would serve as triangulation of the data collected by means of the questionnaires, as indicated by Creswell (2007):

this side-by-side integration is often seen in published mixed methods studies in which a discussion section first provides quantitative statistical results followed by qualitative quotes that support or disconfirm the quantitative results (Creswell, 2007: 213).

As discussed in Chapter 4, semi-structured interviews were used to allow the teachers the opportunity and time to describe in detail the basis of their approaches to teaching, giving prominence to the teachers' voices rather than to the voice of the researcher (Elbaz 1991).

Most of the interviews were conducted at the schools where the participants taught, and at a time in the afternoon which was most convenient to them. Only one participant wanted the interview to be conducted in the office of the researcher. All interviews were recorded on a digital data recorder with the permission of the interviewees. An experienced transcriber, who also has an extensive knowledge of FAL teaching, was appointed to transcribe the interviews verbatim and directly from the tape. Barbour (2008: 192) sees a verbatim transcript as a "useful resource" that allows the researcher to return to the data at a later stage to carry out further analysis. All pauses and other non-verbal indications of what occurred were included in the transcripts (Rubin & Rubin 1995). The researcher then checked the transcripts against the tape recordings of the interviews for correctness. In a further step to verify the transcripts, two transcripts were sent to two of the interviewees to read through and comment on their correctness. In both cases the participants were satisfied with the content of the transcripts.

The data analysis in this study was managed manually. The categories that were built related to the teaching of a first additional language, e.g. teacher language proficiency, methodology used in the classroom, LTSM used in the classroom, knowledge and implementation of language policies, and learner performance. Categorising the data according to these themes made it easier for the researcher to make the links between the interview data and the data collected from the questionnaires. The transcribed texts were read repeatedly in order to compile a summarised description of what is in the transcripts. The analysis of the interviews was focused on finding evidence that corroborated or disconfirmed the data from the questionnaires. Finally, the interpretation of the data allowed the researcher to open up the qualitative data, compare this data with the quantitative data from the questionnaires and answer the research questions (Turner 2010: 759).

5.3.1 Teacher profile

5.3.1.1 What formal training do you have in the methodology of first additional/second language teaching?

Most of the participants in the interviews have no formal training in the methodology of FAL teaching. The focus of their training was mainly on teaching Afrikaans as First Language/Home Language, or generic methodologies for the senior primary or intermediate phase, although some teachers were not so sure whether their qualifications included training in first additional language.

OA: "En daarby het ons 'n kléin bietjie gefokus op Afrikaans as tweede taal, maar nie so verskriklik baie nie..."

OB: "...wat baie meer geskoold was op die Afrikaans eerste taal van destyds en hier en daar het ons ma nou aan die tweede taal geraak..."

OC: "En daar het ons nie veel Afrikaans opleiding gehad nie."

OE: "...ek dink nie ek het opleiding in in in metodiek van tweede taal nie..."

OF: "Ek het eintlik nie tweede taal opleiding gehad nie."

OH: "Wel, ek dink nie ek het nie, want ek het eerste taal Afrikaans en eerste taal Engels."

OJ: "... die metodiek... maar dit was nie noodwendig geskoei op taal nie, metodiek oor die algemeen, sou ek sê."

Two of the participants indicated that they did have some training in FAL methodology, but that it was very long ago and they admitted that a lot has changed since then.

OO: "Ehm that was in 1987. And that was the last that I had any contact with Afrikaans ... opleiding."

ON: "We were drilled and grilled and in how to teach in teaching strategies en you know it's very different to what it is today, didactics formed a very big part of our training."

Most of what these teachers know about FAL teaching they taught themselves, as is evident from their responses:

OA: "...en toe't ek amper maar vir myself beginne leer om Afrikaans tweede taal aan te bied."

OB: "So enige formele opleiding in Afrikaan addisionele taal, dit het jy ma nou geleer in jou onderrig..."

OE: "...just as you go along."

In response to Question 19 of the questionnaire the majority of the respondents indicated that the highest level at which they qualified in the teaching of additional language methodology is a teaching diploma. 20 of the respondents did not answer this question. From the interviews it became clear that, although the teachers were exposed to FAL methodology during their training, the scope was very limited or not specifically on Afrikaans as FAL. As was discussed under Question 19 and in 2.4, the language teacher should have a thorough knowledge of language teaching and learning theories and how to implement these theories in the language classroom. From the data it is evident that these teachers have insufficient training in, and exposure to, the methodologies of FAL teaching, especially in the teaching of Afrikaans FAL.

5.3.1.2 What form of in-service training does the WCED provide with regard to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL?

After 1998 teachers had to implement three different curricula for Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase. In order to ensure that all the elements of these curricula are implemented successfully, the teachers need to be trained and supported by the provincial education departments. As discussed in 2.4, one of the seven major sources of the teachers' knowledge base is the teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, which includes knowledge of the syllabus, resources and skills to develop schemes of work (Shulman 1987). The report (Department of Education 2009:13) of the task team that reviewed the RNCS identified that

“teacher training was superficial and failed to clarify the points of departure and newness of the RNCS, neither did it address the cry for training in subject/learning area content”.

This finding of the task team is corroborated by the responses from the teachers. The vast majority of the participants confirmed that they have not had any, or very little, training and input from the WCED with regard to the curriculum content or implementation for Afrikaans FAL.

OP: “If you’re asking me I think it’s extremely neglected. I will go as far as to say that it’s non-existent, to tell you the truth, to be quite honest.”

OQ: “In Afrikaans, not at all.”

OJ: “Ek dink dit is een van die dinge wat lacking is. Want daar word wel kursusse aangebied, maar meestal in Engels.”

OK: “Ek kan nie onthou date k al in die afgelope paar jaar gehoor het dat daar word opleiding aangebied vir Afrikaans nie.”

OI: “Ja, en al julle praat van additional language, dan praat hulle in terme van English additional language ... en nie van Afrikaans nie.”

OG: “Ons was nou hierdie jaar by ‘n vergadering waar ek dit self genoem het, war ek gesê het dat dis van die groot leemtes ... veral in die Suidelike voorstede.”

Participants OO and ON mentioned that although they were aware of the Afrikaans FAL RNCS documents, they did not receive the documents from the department and had to download the documents from the WCED’s website. The documentation that they did receive, e.g. assessment guidelines, learning programmes and work schedules, were all in English. There was no training from the WCED with regard to the implementation of these documents.

ON: “So all we were given was, here are your learning outcomes, here are your assessment standards and that is where it stopped.”

One teacher who did attend such a workshop described the training as very theoretical with no reference to the practical implications of the curriculum for the day-to-day teaching of the subject.

OB: “... maar vir my help dit nie daardie praktiese aspekte in die klaskamer, raak hierdie werkswinkels nie. Dit gaan oor die kurrikulum syself, oor wat gedoen moet word, en nie hoe dit gedoen moet word ... die kurrikulum gaan vir my basies oor daardie teoretiese goed wat daar op papier is... en jy staan maar nou weer daar in die donker in die klaskamer, en jy moet maar nou vir jouself uit daai donkerte uit gaan haal ...”

ON: “No new developments...But we weren’t presented with RNCS documents.”

Another participant referred to the workshop that she attended as an exercise by the department to check whether the teachers were adhering to departmental expectations.

ON: “...and all we go in for is for them to make sure that people doing a number of assessments that we need to, ... but there’s no real didactical value ...”

One of the participants mentioned that her school was visited by the subject advisor for the first time in five years, but the focus of this visit was not on FAL, but, as was mentioned by the previous participant, to check on the use of the blue boxes and the learners’ books. The subject advisor did provide the teachers with some guidelines on reading and questioning.

OL: “...soos vrae wat opgestel moet word ten opsigte van die kind, jou konteks vrae, wat jy vir die kind moet gee op begeleidende vrae... die vaardighede soos die leesaspekte ...”

These responses from the participants corroborate the data from the questionnaire Question 21, where 64% of the respondents indicated that they have never attended any in-service training specific to the RNC for Afrikaans FAL. Of the 36% of respondents who attended in-service teacher training, the majority said that the focus of these sessions was on curriculum planning and coverage, and understanding the policy documents. Only 10% identified teaching methods as the focus of the training.

If one takes into consideration that 77% of the teachers who participated in the research obtained their qualifications before 1995, it is evident that these teachers need some up-to-date training in additional language methodology as well as intensive training in the FAL curriculum they are expected to deliver in the classroom. According to the data, this is not happening in the Grade 4 – 6 Afrikaans FAL classrooms in Western Cape urban schools.

5.3.1.3 *How would you describe your proficiency in Afrikaans?*

Six of the teachers indicated that they would prefer it if the interview could be conducted in English. This was an indication to the researcher that these Afrikaans FAL teachers were not comfortable responding to the questions in Afrikaans. When asked to rate their proficiency in Afrikaans, their answers were as follows:

ON: “...average, I think. But we manage very well in the classroom and at their [the learners’] level.”

OO: “Ons kan Afrikaans praat ... en verstaan en lees, but not on a very high level.”

OC: “... not very proficient. Seker maar by 6 [uit tien].”

OD: “Nie 100% gemaklik nie, but if the need is there and I need to communicate or teach in Afrikaans then I will.”

Participants OQ and OP both indicated that they mostly speak English outside the Afrikaans classroom, but the fact that the learners are so weak in Afrikaans makes them more confident to speak Afrikaans in the FAL classroom. Participant OC rated her proficiency as “...maar goed genoeg om te onderrig”.

The other participants rated their own proficiency in Afrikaans as good to very good:

OJ: “Ek dink ek is baie goed in Afrikaans, want ek het opgegroeï in Afrikaans en ek het my opleiding in Afrikaans ontvang, maar ...ek het meer en meer verengels.”

OK: “...oor die algemeen is my Afrikaans ook goed ...”

Ol: “Nee, ek is altyd baie lief vir Afrikaan gewees, ek het Afrikaans opgegroeï ... het ek ‘n passie vir Afrikaans gehad ...”

OH: “Ek is Afrikaans, ek praat Afrikaans by die huis.”

OM: “Ja, ek is huistaal. Huistaalspreker, so ja, ek geniet dit.”

When we compare the participants’ responses to this question to the responses to Question 29 in the questionnaire, there is a positive correlation between the two sets of data. In Question 29 the vast majority of respondent indicated that their proficiency in Afrikaans is good to excellent, and only a small minority rated their proficiency in the different language skills as average or weak. None of the participants in the interviews indicated that their proficiency in Afrikaans is so weak that it hampers their teaching of the FAL. As discussed in 3.6.1, many researchers (Norris 199; Widdowson 1994; Medgyes 1992) are not convinced that FAL teachers have to have native speaker proficiency in the target language to operate in the classroom, but maintain it would be to their advantage.

The researcher is, however, not convinced that the teachers, who admitted in the interviews that their proficiency is not very good, will be able to support and scaffold the learners’ acquisition of the target language sufficiently. For this to happen effectively, the teacher should be considerably more knowledgeable than the learner and not just a step ahead of the learner (see 2.3).

5.3.1.4 *What is your rationale for/opinion of teaching Afrikaans as a FAL?*

As discussed in 3.2.1, the LiEP (Department of Education 1997a) made provision for the introduction of at least one additional language from Grade 3 onwards. The LiEP

(Department of Education 1997a) also states very clearly that all language shall receive equitable time and resource allocation. The RNCS (Department of Education 2002a) expected learners to be introduced to the first additional language from Grade 1, but the LiEP (see 3.2.1) does not require learners to pass both their home language and the LoLT or the FAL. Only one language needs to be passed until Grade 10 (Burroughs 2011). A study done by Plüddemann *et al.* (2004) in urban WCED primary schools showed that

the majority [of learners] do not only have no curricular access to their home language (isiXhosa), but are compelled to take their second language (English) at first-language level and their third language (Afrikaans) at second-language level – a classic case of subtractive multilingualism (Plüddemann *et al.* 2004: 60).

This was also the concern of a number of the participants. Although the majority of the teachers are in favour of a first additional language being offered as a compulsory subject, they experience the same problem that Plüddemann highlighted (see 3.2.3). The data from Question 3 indicated that none of the schools offer isiXhosa as LoLT, and therefore the isiXhosa learners are expected to take English as their LoLT and Home Language and are forced to do Afrikaans as FAL. The teachers struggle to successfully teach learners for whom Afrikaans is a third or foreign language, and the teachers are of the opinion that these learners should be allowed to offer another language than Afrikaans as their FAL.

OC: "...ons het kinders wat kom van Somalië, kinders wat kom van Arabië en ons doen net Afrikaans met hulle ook ... daardie arme kind is nou veplig om hier Afrikaans te loop en vir daai kind is dit 'n nagmerrie."

ON: "And yes, fine, we should have maybe an ... African language for our learners who are from African descent ... Xhosa speaking."

OM: "...ons situasie wat ons het, veroorsaak eintlik baie verwarring vir die kind in sy taal, want sy eerste taal is ook nie rêrig sy moedertaal nie."

A number of the participants support the offering of Afrikaans as FAL in Western Cape schools as it is one of the three official languages of the province. One of the teachers felt very strongly that offering Afrikaans as FAL serves the community as it prepares the learners for the real world. Some of these teachers, however, raised their concern about the over-emphasis on English as FAL at the cost of Afrikaans FAL.

OA: "In die Wes-Kaap sou ek dink Afrikaans, ja ... Ja, so ek dink dis, dis absoluut 'n moet."

OI: "Ek dink Afrikaans is een van die amptelike tale van die land so Afrikaans moet sy plek in die son kry, hy moet sy regmatige plek soos al die ander tale kry en

hy moet op dieselfde vlak as Engels hanteer en respekteer word, so ek voel Afrikaans as addisionele taal moet in die skool aangebied word.”

OG: “... ek dink elke provinsie het ‘n ander addisionele taal en Afrikaans is die Wes-Kaap se addisionele taal. Ek voel daar word baie meer klem gelê op Engels as addisionele taal.”

OH: “As ‘n mens nou kyk na die nuwe CAPS-dokumente ... weereens die beklemtoning van Engels as EAT ...geen ander addisionele taal word eers genoem nie.”

OF: “... as ek wel Afrikaans gee, is om vir hulle te sê maar daar is nog ‘n plek vir Afrikaans.”

Another group of participants clearly indicated that they do not see the need for Afrikaans as a compulsory FAL in the schools. These teachers feel that the majority of their learners are English speaking and their exposure to ‘proper’ Afrikaans is limited to the classroom. The Afrikaans the learners are exposed to in their communities is regarded as ‘kombuistaal’. The teachers are not advocating that Afrikaans FAL should be abolished from the curriculum, but they suggest that Afrikaans FAL should not be compulsory, but that the learners’ should have a choice about whether to take it or not.

OE: “Why put the children through that? If you can give them something else in place. But it shouldn’t be compulsory, it must be optional. So don’t take it away, but give them [the learners] a choice.”

OD: “So, I’m not sure if it’s so relevant anymore.”

Participant OJ raised her concern that so many of the learners in her school came from Afrikaans homes, where the parents can hardly speak English, and the language in the community is Afrikaans, but they want their children to be educated in English, because they believe it will be to the advantage of their children. This results in these learners not having a strong foundation in either one of the languages.

Although this question evoked some opposing views, the majority of teachers are still in agreement that Afrikaans has a rightful place as a FAL in Western Cape schools.

5.3.2 Language policies

5.3.2.1 *To what extent do you/your school implement the national and provincial language policies with regard to the teaching of FAL?*

In November 2002 the Language Policy in the Primary Schools of the Western Cape was

introduced (see 3.2.1). The two central recommendations of this policy are, firstly, to implement the policy of mother-tongue-based bilingual education (MTE) in Grades R – 6 as from 2004-2005 in all primary schools in the Western Cape Province, and secondly, to institute incentives to guide all children towards electing to take the third official language of the Province as their second additional language (SAL). The importance of multilingual education is highlighted in the Implementation Plan (WCED 2002) of this policy, when it explains that from 2004:

Xhosa L1 cohorts (Grades R-4) to be exposed to Afrikaans in a manner similar to that in which English/Afrikaans L1 learners are exposed to Xhosa under supervision of an Afrikaans speaking L2 specialist. 2004 to 2006: Xhosa L1 cohort (Grade 5) to begin with compulsory Afrikaans Ad2, etc. as for their English/Afrikaans peers in respect of Xhosa, i.e. for up to 5 hours per week (WCED 2002: 5).

As discussed in 3.2.1 the WCED Language Transformation Plan (WCED 2007a) has as its aim to “promote six years of mother-tongue-based bilingual education (MTB BE) and envisages that all learners in the Western Cape will by the end of Grade 9, have some basic conversational trilingualism” (2007a:1). This plan also calls on all schools to submit a comprehensive School Language Policy and Implementation Plan to the department.

The responses from the participants clearly indicate that these teachers do not have much, if any, knowledge of the content of any national or provincial language policies. There is a positive correlation between the teachers’ responses to Question 39 in the questionnaire and their responses to this question. Although the majority of the teachers indicated that they are aware of the national and provincial language policies, when asked to explain to what extent these policies are implemented at their schools, they referred to the RNCS and the Foundations for Learning, which are both curriculum documents and not language policy documents.

OB: “Ja, ek is totaal bewus daarvan, ons pas hom toe sover ons kan, jy moet ook maar nou jou eie metodiek gaan skep en ontwikkel sodat jy die kind in die klaskamer kan help.”

OF: “Ek dink ons doen dit redelik goed ... soos ons is al klaar besig om CAPS te bestudeer.”

OE: “But I do know that there is a policy in place, ja.”

ON: “We have our own language policy, yes. ... part of our language policy I think can be the whole issue of the immigrants.”

OM: “...jy meng mos maar die twee ... twee beleide.”

OA: "...ek absoluut skuldig pleit ...en ek weet nie eintlik regtig wat die beleid is nie."

OJ: "Die beleid wat ons volg is basies volgens die ... die blou boek. Die werkskedules ja."

OP: "I'm aware of the provincial policy ...I wasn't aware that there was a national policy ...I suppose the document you're talking about is the Foundation for Learning ...That is the official policy, what I've done there."

After the researcher explained the content of these policies to the participants, it was obvious that these policies are not implemented the way the national and provincial departments intended them to be implemented. Very few of the schools offer either Afrikaans or isiXhosa at SAL level, which will make the attainment of the goals of the Western Cape Language Transformation Plan impossible.

OI: "Nee, nee is net die twee tale."

OO: "... answer to the question is that there's no third language. Not at the school, no."

ON: "Already currently we are paying six governing body teacher. So, we cannot afford it [to pay isiXhosa teachers]."

OM: "Ons het 'n poging aangewend, ja, maar die ouers was nie bereid om te betaal nie."

OD + OE: "I don't know any school where there are three languages..."

OE: "... we used to have a third language here ... gradually it just changed."

The data gathered from the interviews support the findings of Question 42.1 and Question 42.2 of the questionnaire, which also reflect that, although the FAL is compulsory for all learners at all the participating schools, there is no consistency with regard to the level at which the FAL is formally introduced as is prescribed in the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c).

OB: "En ek dink by hierdie skool word die beleid toegepas tot die mate dat almal moet die tweede taal neem. ...of hulle nou kan of wil of vreemdelinge is in die land."

OM: "... die Afrikaans tweede taal, die kinders het os nou oorspronklik mos nou in graad 3 mos nou maar begin met die ... tweede taal ...Ja, addisionele taal, dis reg."

OL: "...Ek kan nie op 'n sekere vlak begin en die kind het nog nie die fondasie nie."

OM: "Ek dink die jaar, ek is nie seker nie, of die graad 2's die jaar begin het ook nie."

Without the necessary introduction and formal teaching of the FAL in Grade 1 to Grade 3, it will be impossible for the Grade 4 learners to demonstrate the expected reading vocabulary of between 1 000 and 2 500 common words as the RNCS (Department of Education 2002c) or CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) prescribe.

5.3.3 Learner profile

5.3.3.1 To what extent do your learners achieve the outcomes of the RNCS?

According to the RNCS (Department of Education 2002a), the learners must achieve the following six learning outcomes for Afrikaans FAL: “luister, praat, lees en kyk, skryf, dink en redeneer en taalstruktuur en -gebruik”. The CAPS (Department of Basic Education 2011a) for Afrikaans FAL divides the subject into four language skills, namely “luister en praat, lees en kyk, skryf en aanbied en taalstruktuur en -konvensies”. Except for “dink en redeneer” the other skills are common to both curriculum documents and should therefore not cause a major shift in what is taught in the Afrikaans FAL classroom and what skills the learners are expected to acquire and demonstrate in the target language.

Some of the participants reported that their learners manage to achieve most of the LOs for Afrikaans, where other participants highlighted certain LOs where the learners struggle to get to the expected levels. In this discussion the researcher will also refer to the data collected in Question 7 of the questionnaire. Participant OA was very adamant that the majority of her learners do achieve all the outcomes and are able to demonstrate the assessment standards with confidence. Participant OF was convinced that most of her learners do not perform at the expected levels: “Nee, glad nie, glad nie, beslis nie ... om te sê driekwart van my klas dink ek nie bereik dit nie”. Based on the other interviewees’ responses, it is evident that the learners enjoy speaking and reading aloud the most, but almost none of these participants indicated to what extent the learners demonstrate the assessment standards for speaking and reading aloud. Participant OG referred to the prepared orals where learners, or their parents, write out the oral and then the learner simply reads it from the piece of paper, or the learner learn the oral off by heart and recite it to the class, but there is no indication that the learner understands the message that he/she conveys.

OK: “...die dialoog, hulle hou baie daarvan, want dan kan hulle mos nou twee voor staan en uitact...”

OJ: “So hulle geniet vreeslik om te luister na Afrikaans en agterna ook te gesels daaroor...”

ON: “...they are able to debate; they are able to role play.”

OM: “So die Afrikaans Engelskind praat goed Afrikaans ...”

OC: “Nee, ek praat van hardop lees ... dit kan hulle doen, maar nie noodwendig met begrip nie.”

OD & OD: “Yes, the mechanics of reading is not the problem.”

The participants’ responses show that most learners struggle to master the other language skills, namely listening, reading with understanding, writing and language structures or grammar. As participant OE put it: “hulle kan oulikies lees juffrou. Hulle weet net niks wat hulle lees nie”. Participant OC concurred: “Daardie kritiese leesvaardighede, daardie kritiese lees deur die lyne, die ontbreek by hom, né”. The learners’ struggle to write in Afrikaans and the teachers’ frustration with the learners’ poor performance is described in great detail by participant OG:

“...ek belowe jou, ek kan nie ‘n graad 7-seun ‘n opstel laat skryf van 250 woorde nie ... Dit is vir hom, is vir hom ‘n pyn, dis vir my ‘n pyn, want ek moet dit merk ... Ek sal liewerste paragrawe van 10 sinne skryf ... my moed is op ek kan dit nie doen nie”.

Participant OB pointed out the link between the learners’ reading and writing skills: “as hulle nie lees nie gaan hulle ook nie kan skryf nie, want hulle sien nie die patrone raak nie”. Some of the teachers also blamed the use of technology, such as Mixit and Whatsapp, for the learners’ poor spelling and grammar. Teachers observed that if the learners are interested in the theme or topic, they will listen more attentively and demonstrate better levels of understanding, but in general they have difficulty understanding the spoken word, especially when the teachers’ pronunciation is different from what the learners are used to.

5.3.3.2 *What do you think are the reasons for your answer to question 7?*

From the interviews the researcher identified three overarching reasons for the Grade 4 – 6 learners’ struggle to perform at the expected levels as set out in the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL. Participant OF summarised these reasons as follows:

“Ek dink dis ‘n kombinasie van die feit dat hulle nie positief is teenoor Afrikaans nie, dat hulle dit nie genoeg hoor en self praat of lees nie. En dan, miskien aan die einde van die dag die volume, die massa.” [*I think it is a combination of the fact that they are not positive towards Afrikaans, which they do not hear and speak or read it enough. And then, maybe at the end of the day the volume, the massive amount.*”]

The most important reason, according to the participants, for the learners’ inadequate performance, is the learners’ negative attitude towards the language, which impacts negatively on their motivation to learn the language. In many of the communities Afrikaans is

still seen as “the language of the oppressor” (Heugh 2008; Alexander 2000; Plüddeman 2000). Participant OE confirmed this when she used this exact phrase to describe her feelings towards Afrikaans. Participant ON explained that Afrikaans is seen as “the poorer person’s language” and therefore the learners are ashamed to speak it in public. The teachers’ plight to motivate the Afrikaans FAL learners and try to change their negative attitudes towards the target language is implied in participant OP’s response: “Yeah, I think at our school, there’s an extremely negative approach to Afrikaans from the learner which makes it very, very difficult ... but the majority is that 80 – 90% of the class is totally negative towards Afrikaans.”

It is not only the learners’ attitude and motivation that may be responsible for the learners’ poor performance. According to participant OH, there are many Afrikaans FAL teachers who are not motivated to teach the subject and they do not have the necessary passion for the subject to go the extra mile to make the learners’ experiences in the FAL classroom enjoyable and positive. Participant OE made it very clear that she does not think there is a place for Afrikaans in an English-medium school: “There isn’t a place for Afrikaans. ... there is no place, not in an, not in an English-medium school.”

The second important reason for the learners’ weak performance is the lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom. A study conducted by Plüddemann *et al.* (2004) showed that the majority of learners are forced to do Afrikaans as a FAL although it is a third or foreign language to them (see 3.2.3) and they therefore seldomly hear Afrikaans outside the classroom. The Afrikaans that a large majority of learners are exposed to is not the same as the language they hear in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. Participant OJ referred to this language as “straattaal” and participant OD confirmed that it is the “type of exposure” that has a negative impact on the learners’ performance in and their attitude towards the target language. According to participant OB, the learners do not have the opportunities to build up a strong vocabulary to be able to function effectively in the language. In other cases the learners just do not hear or speak the language outside the classroom, as participant ON put it: “[The learner] speaks anything else other than Afrikaans [when] they’re out.” Participant OF emphasised the fact that there is no need for many of the learners to speak Afrikaans outside the classroom as one of the reasons why they are not motivated to learn the language. This may be due to the social and economic status of English in the community. Participants felt that the learners are not exposed to the enough because they do not read – not in their home language, nor in their FAL. Participants OI and OJ explain: “Want ek dink dat kinders nie meer lees nie. Hulle lees nie ... in hulle huistaal nie. Hulle gaan nie biblioteek toe nie”. Their world is invaded by technology and multi-media are now more interesting than books, newspapers and magazines.

The third reason for the learners' performance is that the teachers do not have enough time on the timetable to allow them to cover the whole curriculum and do sufficient remedial intervention with the learners that struggle. Participant OH explained her dilemma as: "So daar is nie genoeg tyd op ons rooster om te doen wat van ons verwag word nie," and participant OM phrased it as: "Ek voel partykeer is dit ook te veel goed..."

Another factor impacting on the learners' performance in Afrikaans FAL is the under-preparedness of the learners for the challenges of the intermediate phase. This is because these learners have been exposed to Afrikaans only from Grade 3 and have not acquired the necessary skills to build on in Grade 4.

When we compare the interviewees' responses with the data from Question 8 in the questionnaire, there is some correlation between the findings. In Question 8 62% of the respondents indicated that the lack of exposure to Afrikaans is the most important reason for the learners' poor performance in the target language and another 29% of respondents mentioned that the learners' negative attitude is the most important reason for the learners' poor performance. 3% of the respondents were of the opinion that the time allocated per week to the FAL was not enough.

5.3.4 Curriculum planning and delivery

5.3.4.1 Describe how you use the RNCS for Afrikaans FAL to inform and guide your teaching of Afrikaans.

All the participants struggled to answer this question to the satisfaction of the researcher. Although all the teachers were aware of the existence of the RNCS and the learning outcomes and assessment standards, very few could explain how these documents inform and guide their teaching of Afrikaans. One or two of the teachers referred to the number of assessment that they are expected to do with the learners in the specific grades, but the rest of the information was very superficial, which gave the researcher the idea that they do not really use the RNCS documents in their planning and teaching. Even after some probing, vague answers such as the following were given:

OF: "Ja, ja, ons gebruik nog die NKV."

OA: "Ja, ja ek dink so. Ja, kom ons sê net ja."

OE: "We work primarily with RNCS ... and I think because its very book bound also, we had to choose a book on which to base our whole prep..."

OG: “Ons gebruik dit, nee definitief.”

OF: “... ek het hom nou nog nooit so gesit en ... en spesifiek bestudeer nie ... ek dinkons laat ons lei deur die hoeveelheid assesserings per kwartaal ...”

Participant OB complained that the RNCS does not make provision for the different proficiency levels of the learners in the same class and therefore she has to use the document as a guideline and then: “voeg [jy] by wat vir jou maklik is en wat jy voel in jou eie onderrig vir jou gaan help, ten einde ‘n resultaat, ten minste ‘n slaagse resultaat, by hierie kinders te kan kry”.

From the interviews it became evident that most of the teachers make use of the Foundations for Learning (Department of Education 2008) and the work schedules provided by the WCED. These data correspond positively with the data from Question 46 in the questionnaire, where 57% of the respondents indicated that they mainly use the Foundations for Learning or the WCED work schedules to plan their teaching programme. They feel that the detailed guidance and prescribed work schedules are of much more help than the RNCS. Some of the participants did, however, mention that the amount of work that they are expected to cover with their FAL learners according to these documents is far too much and the levels are also too high for their Afrikaans FAL learners. Participant OD explains it as follows: “I found that sometimes there’s such a lot. Like as it is set out there such a lot of things that you need to cover in a lesson, it’s too overwhelming, so you can’t”. Another participant’s answer showed her solution to the problem of overload: “en ons het gesê, hoe pas die document in by ons skool? Want, met alle respek gesê, ons kan nie alles vat wat daar is nie”. These responses indicate that there are many permutations of the prescribed Afrikaans FAL curriculum implemented in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools.

Participants OG and OH talked about their dilemma as Grade 4 Afrikaans FAL teachers. As was mentioned in 5.3.1.3.2 and Question 42 in the questionnaire, many learners come into Grade 4 with a deficit as they have only had formal teaching in Afrikaans FAL since Grade 3 and not Grade 1, as the curriculum prescribes. The teachers now have to combine Grade 3 and Grade 4 work in order to get the learners to the expected levels of proficiency and that is impossible. As they put it: “want daar’s baie goed wat hulle nog nodig het en wat hulle nie eintlik het nie. So, soos hulle deurgaans veroorsaak dit dat hulle met problem eindig, want hulle kan nie alles doen wat hulle... wat van hulle verwag word nie”.

As discussed in 3.3.4, the Foundations for Learning (FFL) for Grades 4 – 6 does not have separate documents for home language and first additional language, although the time

allocated to languages is clearly divided between LOLT/HL and FAL/HL. In the FFL for home language comprehensive guidance is given to the teacher with regard to the principle of scaffolding and the different strategies of teaching reading. The information regarding the teaching of grammar, spelling and writing, however, does not provide detailed information. The message that is sent out by having only one document for both home language and first additional language is that the methodologies of teaching these two levels of language are exactly the same, which they are not. Teachers of Afrikaans and other African Languages are once again disadvantaged, as the FFL documents are available only in English.

5.3.4.2 How much time per week is allocated to Afrikaans FAL?

As the data from Question 43 indicated, the majority of interviewees confirmed that in their schools an average of three hours per week are allocated on the timetable to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in Grades 4 to 6. The Grade 7s have slightly more time for their FAL. These three hours are made up of different combinations. Some schools have Afrikaans on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays for an hour per day. Other schools have six half-hour periods spread over the week. One participant indicated that she has six periods of thirty minutes each per week for Afrikaans, which brings the total number of hours to four and a half hours. Interviewees OL and OM complained that the two and a half hours per week they have for Afrikaans FAL allows too little time to cover everything the curriculum requires. Participant OQ explained that in his/her school the time for languages is increased by having a compulsory daily reading period on the timetable. These slots alternate between English and Afrikaans.

Various interviewees mentioned that although a certain number of Afrikaans FAL periods may appear on the timetable, some teachers do not always adhere to the allocated hour. If learners are behind in another learning area/subject and the same teacher is responsible for a number of learning areas/subjects, the Afrikaans time will be used for the other subject. Where the Afrikaans teacher is the subject teacher, this will not happen.

Ol: "...onderrig ek miskien 3 leerareas, dan kom ek glad nie daai dag by Afrikaans uit nie, want na tweede pouse moet ek nou weer 'n ander klas vat".

OJ: "...want omdat ek vier [leerareas] het kan ek nou nie elke dag Afrikaans doen nie, nou is ek miskien agter met Sosiale Wetenskap, dan moet ek Sosiale Wetenskap doen ..."

OK: "... miskien moet jy vyf vakke 'n dag doen... jy kan nie partkeer al vyf doen nie, want hulle [die leerders] is nou eers hier by die derde een ...".

According to these data, it is clear that sufficient time is allocated to Afrikaans FAL in most of the schools, but it is difficult to ensure that the time is spent on the teaching of the FAL, as participant OH puts it: “Ja, nie beheer nie, jy’t nie, kan nie die heeltid jou vingers daarop hou nie”.

5.3.5 Teaching methodology

5.3.5.1 Describe the methodology/approach that you use when teaching FAL

The various methods and approaches to FAL teaching were discussed in 3.4. Although the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) is not very clear about the methodology to be implemented in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, the integration of the learning outcomes is emphasised and a thematic approach is suggested. The CAPS for Afrikaans FAL (Department of Basic Education 2011a: 14) advise teachers to follow a “text-based, communicative and process-orientated” approach in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms. The teachers’ responses to Question 54A and Question 54B of the questionnaire indicated that the majority of them implement the different aspects of CLT and a learner-centred approach to different degrees in their FAL classrooms. Certain activities and practices that are not in line with CLT and point to a more teacher-centred approach are still used in many of the classrooms, e.g. choral repetition, learning of vocabulary lists, over-emphasis on errors, translation activities and prepared orals. The Western Cape Education Department (WCED) Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (2006) subscribes to the constructivist and social constructivist theories of learning and therefore regards the learners as active participants in the learning process. Constructivist theories emphasise the activity of both learners and teachers in the schools as they construct and re-construct knowledge.

Stern (1983) is convinced that the teachers’ knowledge of different theories of language teaching and learning plays an important role in informing their language teaching. Brown (1993: 12), however, warns against teachers focusing only on one single theory or approach. He proposes that teachers should have a wide repertoire of methods and approaches to choose from, depending on the needs of the learners and the situation in the classroom. Shulman (1987: 8) describes this knowledge of teachers as pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which is distinctive to teachers and is the combination of the teachers’ knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy (see 2.4).

All the participants are employed by the WCED and should be familiar with the WCED Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (2006), but not one of them mentioned constructivism or

social constructivism as theories on which they base their language teaching. During the interviews it became evident that the participants do not have a clear understanding or knowledge of the different methods and approaches for FAL teaching. None of the interviewees could name any FAL teaching method or approach, and the majority of teachers only described the activities they do with their learners. They could elaborate on 'what' they teach and 'how' they teach it, but the 'why' they teach certain content the way they do, is lacking. The following quotes of the teachers suggest their lack of knowledge about specific FAL methodologies and approaches.

OF: "Ek dink en doen maar ietsie van als ... ons het nou nogal PowerPoint ...ons gebruik ons white board baie ..."

OA: "Ek het 'n ... ek het baie verskeidenheid van goed wat ek doen ... hoe meer 'n mens kan wissel hoe beter is dit ... wissel tussen mondelinge, gesprekke, 'n bietjie luister, 'n bietjie skryf ...".

OE: "I, I don't know what my approach is ... I really don't know how to answer that question".

OC: "I don't have any specific way".

OB: "... en jou eie metode gaan ontwikkel ..."

ON: "... our strategies are really very broad, so lots of group work ... and very interactive approach ..."

Participant OI explained his/her strategy to assist those learners who cannot read and have difficulty with writing. Initially it sounded like scaffolding, where a more competent learner will assist a learner who is not competent at all. After some probing, the researcher realised that this strategy is not scaffolding in the real sense of the word. This strategy, which the teacher identified as 'amanuensis', allows the competent reader to read the passage and questions aloud to the not-competent reader, and the not-competent learner then gives the answers to the competent learner orally, which the competent learner then writes down. The researcher does not regard this strategy as scaffolding, as the not-competent learner never progresses to a level where he/she can read a text on his/her own and write down the answers him/her self. The not-competent learner will therefore never move to a higher level of reading or writing competency.

Some of the activities that the teachers described in an attempt to elaborate on the methodology and approaches they implement in their Afrikaans FAL classes do, however, point to an understanding of the importance of an interactive learner-centred approach, although none of the teachers used this term.

ON: "We attempt to do things that they [the learners] enjoy doing ... role play ... dialogue. So there's a lot of group work ... interactive very interactive."

OF: "... dan laat ons die hele klas dit lees en dan al die meisies en dan al die seuns en dan vra wie is nou lus om dit alleen te lees. Sodat hulle praat en luister, of 'n rolspel, hulle is mal oor dramatiseer."

Quite a few of the teachers are still using strategies which remind one of the audio-lingual method as these accounts reflect:

OA: "...en dan gee ek vir hulle notas daaroor. Ons sal 'n paar op die bord doen en dan sal hulle begin skryf."

OP: "I think the approach I use which ... you best describe as a rote learning approach. There's a lot of repetitiveness. So for me it's very much a drill."

The learners' lack of understanding the target language is highlighted by the fact that so many of the teachers have to translate most of their instructions and explanations into English. Translation thus becomes a survival strategy for both teachers and learners in the Afrikaans FAL classroom.

OB: "... een van ons grootse take is, né die vertaling van sekere woorde uit die Engelse taal en in die Afrikaanse taal."

OL: "As jy Afrikaans doen, moet jy baiekeer Engels ook verduidelik, want hulle verstaan nie altyd die woorde en goed nie ..."

OM: "Want as ek 'n nuwe kosep soos sê maar werkwoorde, dan moet jy hom nou eers in Engels weer verduidelik."

These data confirm the dire need among Afrikaans FAL teachers for in-service training by the WCED focusing specifically on the latest developments in FAL teaching methodologies and approaches as well as the curriculum requirements regarding the teaching of the FAL.

5.3.5.2 *What is your weekly programme for Afrikaans FAL teaching?*

As discussed in 3.4, the RNCS (Department of Education 2002b) stresses the integration of the learning outcomes during teaching and assessment. Nunan (1995:3) describes this integration of skills as follows: "even in lessons which are explicitly devoted to the development of one or other of the macro-skills, the other skills usually also feature prominently". Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) are in favour of language being taught as a whole and not broken up into smaller separate parts. Part of this wholeness of language also includes the interrelationship of the four skills of

listening, speaking, reading and writing, and therefore teachers should focus on the integration of two or more of these skills in the classroom.

In answer to Question 54B.1, 28% of the respondents indicated that they sometimes use activities that integrate most of the outcomes for additional language and another 54% of the respondents regularly integrate the different outcomes in their teaching of Afrikaans FAL. In line with the responses to Question 54B.1, the majority of the interviewees mentioned that they teach integratively, but when the researcher probed further, it seems that this integration is often neglected in order to promote or focus on one specific language skill or task, or because of lack of time:

OM: "... ek deel my periodes op. Soos ek het 'n leesperiode ek het my taalperiode en so gaan ons aan."

OP: "I work the other way around. My timetable is pretty much designed to cover all the outcomes ... I want to do a little bit ore language, maybe cover sinomieme, antonieme they they'll have a day's notice ... leave your reader at home today."

OA: "Of, as ons nou lekker besig is met begrip, dan bly ons sommer so daar's sekere tye waar ek voel, maar ons is nou in 'n zone, en as jy in 'n zone is moet jy dit gebruik ...ek het nou seker so twee weke aanmekaar just twee dae besig net met berip."

ON: "... so I have about three different aspects, that I do on one topic that I work on. Not aways able to do that because sometimes the time catches you."

OD: "Let's say for a Monday I'm focusing on the retelling, or telling the stories and just focussing on vocabulary ... now they understand that, so next day would be your comprehension..."

OB: "... alles in boksies sit ... alles in kompartemente in ..."

Participant OI explained that her planning and teaching are very closely linked to the assessment programme. Therefore, if the focus of the assessment task is reading comprehension and language structures, the teaching that precedes the assessment will only focus on those aspects. In this case the teacher will integrate reading comprehension and grammar, but the other skills will be pushed aside until a next assessment task. Another interviewee found that the use of a textbook assisted her in teaching integratively, as the thematic approach of textbooks almost forces her to integrate different skills while dealing with that one theme.

Although most teachers are aware that they should integrate the different language skills when teaching the FAL, they find it difficult to implement this principle and easily revert to teaching the various skills separately, or for extended periods. This may be done for various

reasons, e.g. preparation for assessment tasks, limited time or not wanting to divert the learners' focus away from a specific skill.

5.3.5.3 *What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy most and why?*

The responses of the interviewees were quite varied, but it was clear that the aspects they most enjoy teaching are grammar, speaking and reading. Those teachers who most enjoy teaching grammar had different reasons for their choice:

OK: "...ek dink weer dis waar jou basis ook gelê word ... ook in idiome ... dis nie sulke lang stukke nie en jy kan sien dat hulle reageer".

OJ: "Ek hou van ... van taalleer, want dis reëls wat jy kan toepas".

OI: "Idiome, want nou vir hulle was dit so nuut om te hoor. Maar dit gee 'n diepte in die rykdom van die taal".

OP: "I put a lot of emphasis on grammar. I enjoy teaching the language. I think it's the most challenging part of the learning area".

OH: "Ja, ek moet sê ek vind die taal vreeslik maklik om te onderrig".

Those teachers who shared their enjoyment of teaching speaking each had their own reasons for their choice. Participant ON elaborated on how, when teaching reading and reading in the class, the learners ask questions and it is through her interaction with the learners and their answers to these questions that she gets to know them better. Participant OO enjoys the variety of oral activities that she can do with the learners which keeps them interested and involved in the lesson. Participant OE felt that it is during the oral lessons that she can play a role in developing the learners' proficiency in the target language.

Participant OQ was one of the interviewees who preferred to teach reading, especially comprehension. As she put it: "I enjoy the reading. I enjoy the little begripstoetsies. I mean there's several skills that you can cover within that. They [the learners] enjoy the reading although they struggle, but we help them along".

Participant OM also enjoys the teaching of reading more than the other aspects, but in her case she focuses on reading aloud. She emphasises the fact that, although the learners sometimes struggle to read, they still enjoy it. With a classroom policy that the learners should respect one another and therefore not laugh at other learners' mistakes, the learners feel comfortable about reading in front of the class: "daar word nie gelag vir mekaar nie en jy moet respek het vir mekaar. So die kinders geniet dit, so ek geniet ook my lees veral".

Only a few teachers really enjoy teaching writing. In most cases these teachers focus more on creative writing than functional writing. Participant OF believes that if you restrict the number of words the learners must write and provide them with the vocabulary they will need, the learners will be able to complete the task successfully.

None of the interviewees indicated that they enjoy teaching listening. The reasons for this will be discussed in the next section, as it was the skill that many teachers least enjoy to teach.

5.3.5.4 *What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy least and why?*

Most of the teachers made it very clear that they did not enjoy teaching writing. As participants OB and OC put it: “Die skryfwerk, ooo dit is ‘n nagmerrie vir ons”. Participant OB describes the poor quality of the learners’ written work as follows: “hierdie goed wat hier voor jou staan, dis soos ‘n klomp woorde wat in ‘n sak gegooi is”. The teachers also reported that it is not only the teachers who do not enjoy the writing periods, but the learners also do not like to write: “Hulle hou ook nie daarvan nie”. The learners’ limited vocabulary contributes to participant OD’s frustration: “they can’t even really understand the language, how are they gonna put their ideas onto paper?” Another reason why some of the teachers do not enjoy teaching the writing component is the amount of marking that comes with it. The learners are not able to write pieces of the expected 180 to 220 words, and the teachers feel they have to rewrite the whole passage in an attempt to correct all the mistakes. One of the teachers mentioned that she would prefer not to award marks to the learners’ creative writing work and orals because, even with the use of a rubric, she regards it as a very subjective exercise.

Some of the teachers really struggle to teach listening and this frustration results in their dislike of teaching this skill in the target language. As participant OG puts it: “Want ek dink nie daar’s ‘n manier om dit te kan onderrig nie ... want ek kan hom [die leerder] nie help nie”. Another participant feels that there is too little time to allow the learners just to listen to the language, to become used to the sounds of the language which will eventually help them to understand what they hear.

Although most of the participants indicated that they most enjoy the teaching of grammar, there are a few who do not share this enjoyment. Participant OO blames this dislike for teaching grammar on the many rules: “Honestly, because I find there are too many rules the children need to learn ... I always leave, what do you call that, vet vetter vetste? ... but they get bored with that, so I hate teaching that”. The reason for this teacher’s aversion to teaching grammar and rules may be the result of the teacher’s own insufficient knowledge of

the language structures and rules. Participant OF struggles to find a creative way to teach language structures and rules, as well as with the enormous amount of work that needs to be done in the limited time she has: “ek sukkel om, hoe kan ek sê, die taal op ‘n kreatiewe manier ook aan te bied ... maar ons jaag teen ‘n tempo, want ek wil sekere goed afgehandel hê voor die toets”.

From the participants’ responses it became very clear that some of them have a strong dislike of teaching certain aspects of Afrikaans. As discussed in 3.3.1, teachers actually choose what to teach when they are alone in their classrooms. Longstreet and Shane (1993: 46) call this the “hidden curriculum” and Cuban (1995: 4 - 11) refers to this as the “taught curriculum”, which may deviate from the official curriculum prescribed by the state or province, as it is based on the teachers’ own knowledge of the subject they teach, their own teaching experience and whether they like the subject or not. Bearing this in mind, the implications of Afrikaans FAL teachers not enjoying teaching certain aspects of the curriculum may result in their neglecting or not teaching those aspects at all. If the teachers display a negative attitude towards the teaching of certain language skills, the learners will pick up on this and this may in turn have an adverse influence on the already negative attitude many of the learners have towards the target language.

5.3.6 Teaching and learning materials

5.3.6.1 *What texts and other teaching materials do you use when teaching Afrikaans as FAL?*

The majority of the participants immediately referred to the textbooks they use when answering this question. A variety of Afrikaans FAL titles were mentioned, e.g. *Afrikaans sonder Grense*, *Suksevolle Afrikaans*, *Koelkop Afrikaans*, *Afrikaans is maklik* and *Kollig op Afrikaans*. Although the teachers mainly use one textbook as the primary resource for teaching Afrikaans, many teachers use more than one textbook or even incorporate other resources to enhance their teaching. Although many teachers found the content and language level of the textbooks appropriate, a few teachers indicated that they find the language in some of the textbooks too difficult for their learners, while others had the opposite experience with textbooks that are not challenging enough for their learners.

OC: “... it’s a very child-friendly book”.

ON: “Vir my is die vlak ‘n bietjie laag ... the textbooks are too basic”.

OF: “Ek dink dis bietjie moeilik ... die groot kritiek wat baie mense het op die handboek is dat, dis maar nou Engelssprekende mense wat sê dis te moeilik en dis te veel”.

OP: “I was just about to say I think it’s pitched a little bit high”.

OJ: “... ek dink nie hy, hy’t vleis aan nie man. Is te oppervlakkig”.

Two of the teachers mentioned that they use *Afrikaans my Taal* as one of their textbooks, but this book is aimed at the teaching of Afrikaans as Home Language and not suitable for FAL learners. According to these teachers, they use this textbook because of a shortage of good Afrikaans FAL textbooks. Two of the teachers stressed the fact that their resources are extremely limited and the few they have are in a very poor condition after many years’ handling by the learners.

OQ: “I’ve got a class of 40 and I’ve got 21 books. And they are all in a putrid state”.

Many of the teachers rely on their notes and modules of the past as resources for their teaching, as OA stated: “So ek gebruik nou maar baie van my goed wat jy nou maar so deur die jare bymekaar gemaak het”. On further probing it became evident that some of the teachers make use of newspapers and magazines as additional resources as well as their own worksheets. Although they find these texts valuable with regard to the up-to-date and interesting information they contain, others find the language of these texts too difficult for their learners. A number of teachers incorporate Afrikaans songs into their teaching of the target language as well.

When comparing the participants’ responses to this question to the teachers’ answers to Questions 60, 61 and 62, there is a definite correlation between the two sets of data. It is evident that the teachers of Afrikaans FAL rely quite heavily on the textbook as primary resource, but do also make extensive use of more than one textbook and other resources to enhance their teaching of the target language. As discussed in 3.5, Nunan (1991) confirms the importance of teaching materials, whether commercially developed or teacher-produced, as an important element within the curriculum, and these materials are often its most tangible and visible aspect. It is the teaching materials that put flesh to the bones of the goals and objectives as well as the linguistic and experiential content of the syllabus.

When asked about the use of electronic media, only a few responded positively. The majority of teachers do not use CALL (see 3.5.2 and Question 62) for various reasons, e.g. they do not have access to computers, the computers they have are not working or there are no Afrikaans computer programmes for them to incorporate into their teaching.

OL: “Nee, niks nie”.

OM: “Ons het niks in Afrikaans nie”.

OD: “No electronic programmes. Not for Afrikaans”.

OO: “... we having a big problem with our computer room, our server is down”.

These responses from the participants correlate with the respondents’ answers to Question 62 in the questionnaire, where 60% of the teachers indicated that they do not use any electronic or audio-visual materials when teaching Afrikaans FAL.

5.3.7 Challenges and support

5.3.7.1 Describe the major challenge you experience when teaching Afrikaans as FAL.

The participants’ responses to this question highlighted three major challenges the teachers of Afrikaans FAL experience in Grade 4 – 6 classrooms in urban schools in the Western Cape, namely the learners’ and their parents’ negative attitude towards the Afrikaans language, a shortage of Afrikaans teaching materials, including appropriate textbooks, and limited time to deliver an overcrowded curriculum.

From the teachers’ responses to this question it is very clear that the biggest challenge the teachers experience in their Afrikaans FAL classrooms is the negative attitude of both learners and parents towards Afrikaans. As was discussed in 3.2.3, Question 8, Question 52.6 and Question 53, the participants’ responses reiterate the fact that Afrikaans is seen as an inferior language and many Afrikaans-speaking parents insist that their children are taught through the medium of English. This leads to poorly motivated learners and therefore weak performance in the target language. This negligent attitude towards Afrikaans is not only limited to the learners and parents, but even teachers and school management teams are guilty of this. The teachers’ utter frustration and their struggle to change these negative attitudes are evident from the following responses:

OM: “... net die feit dat baie van die kinder nie rêrig wil Afrikaans doen nie”.

OL: “Daar’s [in die skoolleesprogram] nie plek vir die Afrikaans nie”.

OP: “... my greatest challenge, every year, is to get the learners to become passionate about the language ... and enthusiastic and motivated”.

OG: “Ek sal sê die kinders se houding teenoor Afrikaans. En die ouers se houding”.

OB: “... jy moet gedurig maar iets kweek om jou kind se belangstelling daar te hou. Dit is my grootste uitdaging”.

OF: "... die onderwysers, hulle koppe moet ook eers regkom ... soos my een graad 7-kollega gesê het ... want hy haat Afrikaans, hy't dit reguit gesê. I don't like it, I don't want to speak Afrikaans ... en hy moes dit onderrig". [*"... the teachers, their heads must also first change ... like my one grade 7 colleague said ... because he hates Afrikaans, he said it directly. I don't like it. I don't want to speak Afrikaans ... and he had to teach it".*]

Another challenge the Afrikaans FAL teachers experience is the shortage of age- and grade-appropriate teaching and learning materials in Afrikaans (see 5.3.1.6.1). As discussed in 3.5.1 and 3.5.2, these materials should go beyond textbooks and should include authentic texts from the outside world as well as technological resources. The fact that many teachers compile their own texts and teaching materials is an indication that they have difficulty in finding appropriate and grade-specific material (see Questions 53, 60, 63, 64). The teachers' plea for these materials in Afrikaans is summarised in the following responses:

OJ: "En natuurlik ook onderrigmateriaal. Boeke en so aan".

OI: "... miskien die hulpmiddels ook meer in Afrikaans. Selfs handboeke".

OM: "Vir my is dit hulpmiddels, want ek het nie rêrig baie hulpmiddels soos boeke nou, om vir my rêrig te lei nie. Hoekom moet ek altyd na ou boeke toe?"

OP: "... textbooks, material, teaching aids are definitely, definitely a problem ... that is definitely a challenge, ja".

The fact that this need for appropriate Afrikaans teaching and learning materials has been highlighted by the participating teachers on numerous occasions during this research project is a confirmation that a concerted effort should be made by the WCED and publishers to meet this need.

The third challenge the participating Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grade 4 – 6 classrooms in urban schools of the WCED are faced with is the very full curriculum that has to be delivered in the limited time allocated to the subject on the schools' timetables. This challenge has already been discussed in 5.3.1.5.2 and Questions 44 and 45, and the participants' responses to this question confirm and highlight the responses to the questions in the questionnaire. This dilemma is further complicated by the fact that many of the learners in these Afrikaans FAL classrooms are African or other languages mother-tongue speakers for whom Afrikaans is a third, or in many cases, a foreign language that they have never been exposed to and never hear outside the classroom (see 3.2.3). The teachers find it difficult to deal with all the different levels of learner proficiency in one classroom and almost impossible to complete the prescribed curriculum in the allotted time. Their frustration becomes clear from these responses:

OA: “Maar nou sit jy met kinders soos, as jy nou ‘n Koreaanse kind ... hy verstaan regtig niks wat jy sê as jy dit net in Afrikaans doen nie”.

ON: “... how to teach Afrikaans to a foreigner ... but it's so difficult because we are not equipped to teach ... but we haven't had to teach foreign learners”.

OI: “... die sogenaamde swart leerders in die klas, moet jy dit tog in Engels sê, want hulle verstaan nie dan moet jy dit nou in Engels verduidelik ... om by Afrikaans uit te kom”.

OO: “They don't speak a word of the language, but yet they are forced to sit there, they're forced to write exams on it ...”.

OI: “... maar die tyd is so min en die werk is so baie”.

OA: “Veral as jy beperkte tyd het”.

OF: “Want in elke vak jaag jy om goed klaar te kry, maar mis ‘n paar belangrike goed”.

OG: “...ek dink tyd is vir my ‘n hele uitdaging, ek dink nie ons kan alles, ek dink nie ons het *al*. ooit in ‘n jaar alles gedoen wa ons wil doen nie ... as ons kyk veral na die HNKV en die assesseringstandaarde wat daarin is, ons kom nie eers naastenby daarby uit nie”.

All these challenges that the teachers have to deal with on a daily basis may have a debilitating effect on their attitude, motivation and creativity – all elements that are extremely important when teaching an additional language.

5.3.7.2 *What assistance and support would help you to improve your teaching of Afrikaans FAL?*

Once again the teachers reiterated their plea for guidance and support from the WCED with regard to new developments in FAL teaching methodologies and practical strategies for the classroom. As was discussed in 5.3.1.7.1, the teachers find themselves in uncharted waters when it comes to the teaching of Afrikaans as FAL to learners to whom Afrikaans is a Second Additional Language (SAL) or even a foreign language. The teachers feel that the department leaves them to their own devices to figure out how to cope with the realities in the classroom, as is evident from their responses:

OO: “More guidance. I definitely need more guidance from the department. Yes I follow the LOs and I follow the assessment standards, but I still feel they need to give me a bit more. It's like they're leaving it all up to you to sort out”.

OD: “In the 20 odd years that I’ve been teaching we’ve never had support ... never had support or anything extra to work with, anything new or bright or breezy, nothing, nothing like that has come along hey”.

OM: “Ek voel net ‘n formele werkswinkel vir ons, ook vir die tweede taal ... ek was nog nooit by werksinkels nie. Ek het nog nooit van een gehoor nie. Ek meen ek het nog nooit gehoor ons ... iemand moet gaan vir ‘n werksinkel vir tweede taal nie”. [*I just feel a formal workshop for us, also in the second language ... I have never been to workshops. I have never heard about one. I have never heard we ... someone have to go to a workshop for second language*].

OC: “Dis wat ons van die departement verwag ... prakties. Hoe gaan ons nou ‘n leesles doen? Of leerders wat sukkel met lees, hoe remedieer ons dit?”

OB: “... toe ek begin onderwys gee het 25 jaar gelede, toe’t ons sulke tipe werksinkels gehad in die ou departement van onderwys, waar hierdie inspekteur nou ingekom het en hy’t nou vir ons ‘n behoorlike les kom gee oor woordsoorte, hoe onderrig jy woordsoorte ... Vandag word daar meer klem gelê op die teoretiese aspek, die kurrikulum wat moet klaarkom, die toepassing van die kurrikulum en baie min klem gelê op die praktiese sy van wat in daai vier mure in ... daai klaskamer moet gebeur”.

A few of the participants mentioned that they will appreciate the opportunity to network with other Afrikaans FAL teachers. This would afford them the opportunity to share their experiences, knowledge, ideas, practices and challenges with colleagues and in this way they could learn from one another.

OB: “... somtyds as jy alleen is in jou vak in, en jy’s alleen in ‘n klaskamer, dan voel dit asof jy somtyds so in ‘n donker hoekie instaan ... ons nou net bymekaar kom en nou net it en gesels oor wat ons nou doen in die klas en idees met mekaar uitruil”.

OG: “... kom ons bring al die suidelike voorstede se skole, of ons doen hulle in circuits en sê, al daai graad 4-Afrikaansonderwysers, hoeveel van julle is Afrikaans? ... kom julle eers bymekaar en dan sê julle vir ons watter issues is dit, dan kan ons ons kollegas beginner gaan help”.

Another area of support that was mentioned by a few of the participants is the need for enough and appropriate LTSM aimed at the Grade 4 – 6 Afrikaans FAL learner. This has already been mentioned several times earlier in this chapter. In the teachers’ responses to Question 60.1 and Question 60.2, which focused only on textbooks, 44% of the respondents indicated that not all their learners have their own textbooks and 18% of the respondents said that the textbooks are generally not appropriate for their learners. In the discussion under 5.3.1.7.1 it was also evident that the shortage of appropriate LTSM is one of the major challenges the Afrikaans FAL teachers experience when teaching the target language.

5.4 SUMMARY

The results show that Afrikaans FAL teachers in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools have a very limited knowledge of language policies and FAL methodologies. The three factors impacting most on the teaching of Afrikaans FAL and the learners' performance in the target language are: the learners' and their parents' negative attitude towards the target language, the learners' lack of exposure to Afrikaans outside the classroom, and the shortage of appropriate Afrikaans LTSM in the intermediate phase classes. According to the literature study (see 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7.3) all these aspects need to be addressed in order to ensure effective first additional language teaching and learning.

An in-depth discussion of the results and findings, as well as recommendations on how to improve Afrikaans FAL teaching, will follow in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presented, analysed and interpreted the data of both the qualitative and quantitative strands of the research. In this concluding chapter the researcher will now summarise the findings of the study. The research questions will be evaluated according to the findings and recommendations offered for the improvement of the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in Grades 4 – 6 as well as for further study.

The aim of this research was to investigate and describe the state of Afrikaans First Additional Language teaching in selected Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. The researcher, who is a lecturer in Afrikaans First Additional Language and First Additional Language methodology in the intermediate phase in a faculty of education at a university of technology in South Africa, found that the first-year students' proficiency in Afrikaans has been deteriorating over the past number of years. This was a matter of concern as most of these student teachers will be expected to go out and teach Afrikaans as FAL in intermediate phase classes once they have qualified. Anecdotal student feedback after practice teaching sessions in Western Cape urban primary schools indicated that Afrikaans FAL teachers make use of a vast variety of methodologies and materials, some of which may not be suitable for FAL teaching. Learner and teacher proficiency in Afrikaans were also reported to differ greatly.

6.2 FINDINGS MEASURED AGAINST THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The study focused on the research question: *“What is the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the intermediate phase in Western Cape urban schools?”*

In order to investigate the different elements of first additional language teaching, this research question was divided into three sub-questions. The evaluation of each of these sub-questions follows below.

6.2.1 How knowledgeable are the teachers about the national, provincial and school language policies and plans for Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase and to what extent are these policies being implemented at urban WCED schools?

Based on the research results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.4, 5.2.5 and 5.2.6) and the interviews (5.3.2 and 5.3.4.2), it may be inferred that the teachers do not have an in-depth knowledge or understanding of the content of the specific national, provincial and school language policies. Although the majority of teachers indicated that these policies are implemented at their schools, they could not explain how this is done. The data clearly indicate that the majority of the teachers confuse the FAL curriculum (RNCS) with the language policies. The majority of teachers are, however, in favour of the stipulation that all learners should study at least one additional language at school in order to promote multilingualism, although not all teachers think that Afrikaans should be that additional language (see 5.3.1.4).

Based on the research results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.5 and 5.2.6) and the interviews (see 5.3.2 and 5.3.4.2), it may be inferred that the schools do not implement the language policies exactly as stipulated. The school governing bodies are not involved in decisions around the current school language policies as is prescribed in the South African Schools Act of 1996 (see 3.2.1). In most schools Afrikaans as FAL is not introduced in Grade 1 as is required by C2005, the RNCS or the WCED Language Transformation Plan (see 3.3.4 and 3.2.4) and there is no uniformity in the number of teaching hours per week allocated to Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase.

6.2.2 Are intermediate phase Afrikaans FAL teachers in WCED urban schools adequately trained in the FAL curriculum and methodology and are they proficient in the language they teach?

Based on the research results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.3) and the interviews (see 5.3.1, 5.3.2 and 5.3.5), it may be inferred that the Afrikaans FAL teachers' training in the FAL curriculum and methodology is outdated and inadequate. The majority of these teachers completed their formal training before 1995 and since then they have not had any support and guidance of note from the WCED with regard to new developments in FAL methodologies and strategies specifically pertaining to Afrikaans. This corresponds with the findings of the literature study (see 2.4, 3.3.4) that the RNCS teacher training was superficial and did not deal with the critical new elements of the RNCS or the subject/learning area content. Based on the participants' answers to interview questions (see 5.3.1, 5.3.2 and 5.3.5) it is very clear that they place all the blame with the WCED for their own lack of knowledge of the curriculum and FAL methodologies. None of the interviewees took responsibility for this lack of knowledge and skills or suggested that they could improve their own knowledge by reading or further studies. From both sets of results the researcher infers

that there is a dire need for in-service guidance, support and training from the WCED with regard to curriculum knowledge and delivery as well as new developments in FAL methodologies and teaching strategies (see 5.2.3 Question 27 and 5.3.7).

Based on the results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.3) and the interviews (5.3.1.3), it may be inferred that most of the teachers' proficiency in Afrikaans is good to excellent, and adequate to teach Afrikaans as FAL. During the interviews some of the teachers indicated that they do struggle to teach a whole lesson in Afrikaans and that their proficiency is not what it should be (see 5.3.1.3). The fact that 6 of the 17 interviewees indicated that they would prefer to do the interviews in English is, however, an indication to the researcher that some teachers are not as proficient in the target language as they should be in order to teach the language (see 3.6.1). Of the 125 teachers who completed the questionnaires, 23 opted to complete an English questionnaire, although enough Afrikaans questionnaires were made available to all schools. Although some researchers argue that the FAL teacher does not have to display mother-tongue proficiency in the target language, it is important that the teacher is able to conduct the class in the target language from the beginning to the end (see 3.6.1).

6.2.3 Are teachers adequately equipped and resourced as far as methodologies and LTSM are concerned?

Based on the results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.8) and the interviews (see 5.3.5), it may be inferred that the teachers do not have a distinct knowledge of appropriate FAL methodologies and strategies or FAL teaching and learning theories to teach the target language effectively. Not one of the teachers could identify the methodology that they implement in their teaching of Afrikaans, nor did any of the respondents refer to constructivism or social constructivism (see 2.2 and 2.3) as the underpinning theoretical framework on which they base their teaching of the additional language (see 2.4). Many activities and practices that cannot be associated with CLT (see 3.4.3) or a BLA (see 3.4.5) – e.g. choral repetition, learning of vocabulary lists, translation activities and over-emphasis on errors – are still the default methodology in many classes.

Based on the results of the questionnaires (see 5.2.9) and the interviews (see 5.3.6), it may be inferred that the teachers do make use of a variety of teaching and learning materials in their Afrikaans FAL teaching. This corresponds with the findings from the literature study (see 3.5) that a variety of materials should be used in the language classroom. From the results from the questionnaires (see 5.2.9 Question 63) and the interviews (see 5.3.7) it may be inferred that there is a dire need for age- and language-level-appropriate Afrikaans

teaching material, especially textbooks, as 44% of teachers indicated that not all their learners have their own Afrikaans FAL textbooks. It may also be inferred from the results of 5.2.9 and 5.3.6 that the majority of teachers do not use electronic or audio-visual materials in their Afrikaans FAL teaching, which according to the literature study (see 3.5.2) are essential teaching tools in the rapidly changing landscape of language teaching.

6.3 SPECIFIC FINDINGS

The following section presents the more specific findings from the literature study and the mixed methods study separately.

6.3.1 Findings from the literature study

Next the findings that emerged from the literature study will be presented.

6.3.1.1 Language policies

In a multicultural and multilingual country such as post-1994 South Africa, language policies aimed to manage language diversity and develop the language resources available as well as to identify the role of language in general and individual languages in particular in the life of the nation (see 3.2). The South African Constitution (Republic of South Africa 1996a) declared that all official language must be regarded as equal and be treated equitably. It further stated that everybody has the right to education in the language of their choice (see 3.2.1). This regulation also became part of the LiEP of 1997. School governing bodies were given the responsibility to determine the language policy of a school. The new language policies stipulated that all learners shall offer at least one language in Grade 1 and Grade 2 and from Grade 3 onwards at least one additional language will be added. In 2002 the Language Policy in the Primary Schools of the Western Cape recommended MTE in Grades R – 6 and the introduction of a SAL to promote multilingualism (see 3.2.1).

6.3.1.2 Implementation of language-in-education policies in WCED urban schools

Although the intentions of the language policies were good, their effective implementation is being questioned as the LiEP did not eradicate patterns of language domination and inequality. English is still the dominant LoLT from Grade 3 onwards in the majority of Western Cape schools to the disadvantage of Afrikaans and isiXosa. Most schools that do have a written language policy have not aligned their policies with the requirements of the

LiEP. It is clear from the research that Afrikaans-speaking parents' negative attitude towards Afrikaans has resulted in a large number of non-mother-tongue speakers of English in English-medium schools or classes. Most black parents regard mother-tongue instruction in an African language as inferior and insist on sending their children to English-medium schools. These learners will in most cases find themselves in Afrikaans FAL classrooms, which have far-reaching implications for Afrikaans FAL teaching and will result in subtractive multilingualism (3.2.3). If schools want to implement the LiEP to the letter, it will require considerable human resources in the form of new teachers as well as additional LTSM, e.g. new textbooks and library materials.

6.3.1.3 *First Additional Language curriculum since 1994*

The implementation of the official curriculum will always depend on the teachers who are responsible for delivering the curriculum in their classrooms. What the teachers do in the classrooms and how it is done depends on, among other things, the teachers' knowledge of the curriculum and the time available to cover the whole curriculum (see 2.4, 3.3.1).

The first post-1994 curriculum, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), had as its aim to establish a basis for equal education for all in the form of a national curriculum. In this learner-centred outcomes-based curriculum the teacher's role changed to that of a facilitator of learning. The Language, Literacy and Communication (LLC) learning area made provision for both first language and second language, each with the same seven specific outcomes. The hasty implementation of the new and complex curriculum as well as insufficient teacher training resulted in teachers not knowing what and how to teach and learners who struggled to read and write (3.3.3). The new RNCS emphasised the Languages Learning Area and 25% of the total weekly teaching time was allocated to language teaching. Unfortunately no indication was given as to how this time had to be divided between the different language levels. The RNCS acknowledged multilingualism by expecting all learners to acquire different levels of proficiency in three official languages. The new FAL curriculum prescribed six Learning Outcomes that learners had to master. The HL had to be offered from Grade R and the FAL had to be introduced in Grade 1 (see 3.3.4).

The Foundations for Learning (Department of Education 2008) was introduced to improve the teaching of literacy and numeracy. This document provided much clearer guidance to teachers on how and what to teach and how the 25% of teaching time allocated to Languages should be divided between HL and FAL. The social constructivist underpinning and its practical implementation were also explained to the teachers in the documents.

Non-compliance to language policies and national curricula seem to be the order of the day in South African education. In most schools the FAL has been introduced only in Grade 3 instead of in Grade 1, as prescribed in the RNCS (see 3.3.4).

6.3.1.4 *First Additional Language methods, methodologies and approaches*

The aim of FAL teaching is to develop the communicative competence of the learners by exposing them to the target language as often as possible and giving them ample opportunities to use the language in authentic communicative situations with the teacher and their peers. A wide variety of methods are available for the FAL teacher to choose from, but the literature and curricula suggest that teachers use an eclectic approach when selecting language teaching methods, methodologies, approaches and strategies. In order for teachers to be able to do this effectively, however, they have to have a thorough knowledge and understanding of the underpinning theories of the different methods and approaches. The FAL curricula (RNCS and CAPS) suggest that teachers should integrate the different language skills when teaching and they should focus on a text-based, communicative and process-oriented approach. It is clear from the literature study that one cannot assume that what teachers are trained to do will be reflected in their classroom practice, as classroom practice is influenced by numerous factors (see 3.4, 3.4.1 and 3.3.3).

The traditional language teaching methods such as the grammar, translation and audio-lingual methods do not adhere to the theoretical underpinning of a constructivist and social constructivist approach to language teaching, but are more closely aligned with behaviourism (see 2.1, 2.2 and 3.4).

There are two schools of thought on the purpose of CLT programmes. The first is built on the premise that language is acquired through communication and that additional language programmes should prepare learners to get along in the most common additional language situations they will find themselves in. This approach is also referred to as the communicative/functional approach to teaching the additional language. The second group is adamant that the focus on form and structure or grammatical accuracy should not be negated in the process of acquiring the target language. This approach is known as the formal/structural approach to teaching the additional language (see 3.4).

The interactive and collaborative pair and group work tasks, which are synonymous with the communicative approach, locate CLT in the constructivist and social constructivist learning theories. CLT is a recognised learner-centred approach to additional language teaching and

there are numerous ways of interpreting and applying this approach in the classroom with which teachers can identify (see 3.4.3).

The natural approach to additional language learning is based on the model of first language acquisition and the focus is on listening comprehension through meaningful exposure to the target language. Comprehensible input at a level higher than the learners' current language proficiency level ($i + 1$) is a prerequisite for acquisition of the additional language to be successful. This process of acquisition is often wrongfully equated with scaffolding within Vygotsky's ZPD (see 3.4.4).

A balanced language approach is the preferred approach for additional language teaching of the WCED. This approach integrates all language skills, but the primary focus is on the development of reading and writing skills. The scaffolding support that is characteristic of the BLA can be compared to the process of scaffolding in the ZPD of social constructivism. In a system where the additional language is introduced only in Grade 3 instead of Grade 1, this approach does not take cognisance of fact that the listening and speaking skills of the Grade 4 learners are not at the required level to proceed to focusing on reading and writing (see 3.4.3 and 3.4.5).

6.3.1.5 *Learning and teaching support materials (LTSM)*

Good learning and teaching support materials can be invaluable in classrooms where the teachers have limited training as the materials can guide the teacher towards what subject matter to teach and how to teach it. A great number of learners do not have their own textbooks, which compounds the problem, especially if the teachers are not adequately trained in additional language teaching methodology. Teachers must be equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills to select appropriate teaching and learning materials that will match the goals and outcomes of the first additional language curriculum as well as the learners' interests, attitudes and levels of proficiency. Learners must be exposed to comprehensible authentic texts representing a variety of genres, which will allow for interaction between the learners themselves as well as between the teacher and the learners. The onus is therefore on the publishers to produce teaching and learning materials which are appropriate for the diverse South African context (see 3.5 and 3.5.1).

Recent years have seen a technological revolution in teaching and learning materials. Technology can either be used by teachers as a teaching resource to enhance their own teaching, or it can be used to enhance learners' learning experiences by providing them with greater access to the target language. The latter use of technology in teaching allows for

materials and teaching to be tailored to individual learners' needs. Technology should therefore not be seen as a tool to replace the teacher in the classroom, but a tool that facilitates meaningful teaching and learning. The reality of the South African situation is, however, still a setting where the teacher stands in front of the blackboard and the learners sit at their desks reading from a textbook – if the learners do have textbooks (see 3.5.2).

6.3.1.6 *The first additional language teacher*

Each one of the different additional language teaching methods and approaches ascribes certain roles to the language teacher. Over and above these language teaching roles, the Minimum Requirements for Teacher Education Qualifications (Republic of South Africa 2011: 49 – 50) also prescribes the collective roles of teachers in schools. All these roles overlap with what an additional language teacher is expected to do, namely be a phase, subject or practice specialist; mediator of learning; leader, administrator and manager; interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials; scholar, researcher and lifelong learner; assessor; and perform community and pastoral role. Over and above these roles, the additional language teacher must also be proficient enough in the target language in order to teach it effectively (see 2.4 and 3.6).

The FAL teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the subject content, in other words, of all the aspects, including structures and rules, of the language that is being taught. In addition, the FAL teacher should also have knowledge of the different theories of additional language teaching and learning, and knowledge of the practice of additional language teaching itself, also known as PCK. Currently teachers are also expected to know how to integrate technology into their teaching (see 2.4).

In addition to the above-mentioned knowledges, the additional language teacher must also be proficient in the target language. There are different interpretations of teacher language proficiency. Some researchers argue that it refers to linguistic proficiency, which includes knowledge of six different areas. Others argue that because of the communication-based nature of the FAL curriculum, the emphasis should be on communication and the teacher's ability to communicate successfully in the classroom environment and not only on linguistic accuracy. Then there are those who agree that the teacher should actually be both a proficient user of the target language as well as know how the language works (see 3.6.1).

The FAL teacher also needs to be a facilitator of learning in a learner-centred classroom by organising the classroom and communication activities. The teacher has to motivate learners who display a negative attitude towards the target language and create a learner-friendly and

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non-threatening environment which will enhance the acquisition process (see 3.6.2). As mediator of learning the teacher, like the learners, is an active participant in the construction and re-construction of knowledge. Through scaffolding the teacher will support and guide the learner until the learner can perform the tasks independently (see 3.6.3).

6.3.1.7 *The first additional language learner*

In line with social constructivism and social-cultural theory, learners now have to take responsibility for their own learning by being active participants in the process of knowledge construction. This is done with the support and guidance of the FAL teacher. The focus is no longer only on the development of the learners' linguistic competence, but communicative competence now becomes a priority. Learners' expectations of learning the target language also have an impact on how successfully the language will be acquired (see 3.7.1).

Not all learners learn in the same way, and therefore teachers in the FAL classroom need to vary their teaching styles in order to accommodate these differences. If learners' preferred learning styles are accommodated in the classroom, it can improve their performance, whereas the opposite also holds true (see 3.7.2). There are different opinions about the role learners' aptitude plays in acquiring an additional language. Some researchers argue that, because acquisition is considered to be unconscious and implicit, aptitude does not have any effect on acquisition, while others argue that language aptitude may contribute significantly to attaining native-like proficiency in the additional language (see 3.7.2).

The learners' attitude towards the target language, the teacher and the classroom situation may have a negative or positive effect on the acquisition and learning of a new language. Because of the negative political connotation of Afrikaans, many parents have a negative attitude towards the language, which is transferred to their children. These negative attitudes towards Afrikaans are evident in the FAL classroom and pose a great challenge to the teachers (see 3.7.3).

6.3.2 **Findings from the research**

The current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools has been evaluated by means of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with Grade 4 – 6 Afrikaans FAL teachers. First the findings of the quantitative strand of the research (questionnaires) will be presented, and this will be followed by the findings of the

qualitative strand of the research (interviews). Finally the two sets of findings will be compared.

6.3.2.1 *Findings from the questionnaires*

The majority of urban schools where Afrikaans is offered as FAL have English as LoLT. Learners at these schools, whose mother tongue are isiXhosa, have to offer English as HL and are expected to do Afrikaans as their FAL (see 5.2.1). Learners in the Afrikaans FAL classes have very limited exposure to the target language in other classes at school, but are more often exposed to Afrikaans in their communities. According to the results, learners perform best in reading aloud, but in all the other communication skills and learning outcomes the majority of learners do not achieve the expected levels. The reasons for this poor performance are the limited exposure to Afrikaans and the learners' negative attitude towards the target language (see 5.2.2).

Although the results show that the majority of Afrikaans FAL teachers' home language is English, the majority of teachers rate their proficiency as good to excellent in all communicative skills, yet the medium of instruction in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms is a combination of English and Afrikaans in different proportions. All teachers have an initial teachers' qualification of at least three years with some training in Afrikaans, although not necessarily in the methodology of FAL. The majority of teachers have eleven or more years' experience of teaching Afrikaans FAL and obtained their highest qualification before 1995. Teachers feel confident that their training had prepared them adequately or very well to teach Afrikaans FAL. The overwhelming majority of teachers have never attended any in-service training or short courses specifically aimed at the Afrikaans FAL curriculum or new developments in FAL methodology. Those teachers who did attend such workshops, offered by the WCED, indicated that the focus of these courses was mainly curriculum planning and coverage and the understanding of policies. The results show that there is a great need for more and appropriate training in various areas of Afrikaans FAL teaching, more and appropriate Afrikaans teaching materials and resources as well as official curriculum documentation in Afrikaans. The majority of teachers usually or always enjoy teaching Afrikaans, but the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans does have a negative impact on the teachers' enjoyment (see 5.2.3).

The results show that over 70% of the teachers are fairly familiar with the national and provincial language policies and they support the notion that all learners should study at least one additional language, yet not all teachers feel that learners should be forced to take

Afrikaans as FAL. Further results indicate that many teachers confuse the language policies with the FAL curriculum (RNCS) (see 5.2.4).

Most schools do have a school language policy in place, but it is not clear whether the teachers are familiar with the content of these policies. Results show that the implementation of these school language policies is closely monitored by the school management teams, but the results also indicate that in most cases the parent bodies are not involved in decisions around these policies. According to the results, the language policies and the curriculum are not implemented uniformly, as only 30% of teachers indicated that Afrikaans FAL is introduced in Grade 1 at their schools, as prescribed. The majority of schools introduce Afrikaans FAL in Grade 2 and others as late as Grade 3 or even Grade 4 (see 5.2.5).

An average of three hours per week is allocated to Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grades 4 – 6 in most schools, although the minimum number of hours recorded is one and a half hours. The majority of teachers would prefer it if they could have one hour per week more to teach Afrikaans to spend on a variety of areas, but mostly on teaching reading comprehension (see 5.2.6).

The results indicate that teachers mostly use the WCED work schedules and the RNCS documentation for their planning, although only 10% are very familiar with the content of the RNCS. The teachers use the LOs and ASs of the RNCS for their lesson planning and teaching. Teachers feel that they are afforded a lot of freedom to choose the content they teach as well as the methodology they use in the FAL classroom (see 5.2.7).

Listening with understanding and speaking are the two skills regarded by most teachers as very important for effective additional language teaching and learning. Writing accurately is regarded by more teachers as very important than reading and viewing, or than the integration of skills. The motivation and attitude of both learners and teachers are regarded as very important for successful FAL teaching and learning. Teachers feel that suitable resources, including textbooks, as well as enough time to cover the FAL curriculum, are very important elements in the teaching of the FAL (see 5.2.8).

The three most important factors impacting negatively on the learners' progress in Afrikaans FAL are: the negative attitude of parents, learners and some teachers towards Afrikaans; limited exposure to the target language; and a shortage of age- and language-level-appropriate teaching and learning materials (see 5.2.8).

The results show that 46% of the FAL teachers regularly use either the learners' mother tongue or the LoLT for explanations and the same number of teachers regularly explains in

Afrikaans. Many teachers still use activities which remind one of the audio-lingual method such as choral repetition, vocabulary lists and translations. The results show that most teachers do engage in classroom activities that reflect CLT such as group work, self- or peer evaluation, debates, language games, activities involving action, role play and opportunities for learners to express their own opinions. Very few teachers, however, integrate technology into their teaching (see 5.2.8).

Although the teachers indicated that there is a shortage of appropriate LTSM, most of them use a variety of media texts, or their own original texts in their teaching. Even though 44% of teachers indicated that not all learners have their own textbooks, 72% of the teachers use the textbook regularly or all the time. Most teachers also use visual or auditory texts to some extent in their teaching. Although the results indicate that learners in the Afrikaans FAL classes spend most of their time on interactive communicative activities, in 33% of all lessons learners mostly work quietly in their books on their own exercises. Most teachers find the available departmental curriculum materials useful for planning teaching and learning activities. Other sources that are also useful are textbooks, teachers' guides, library materials and media texts. Teachers tend to organise the content they teach according to the language skills, grammatical structures, outcomes and assessment standards. A smaller number of teachers use language notions and functions as organisational guidelines (see 5.2.8).

Although the teachers regard textbooks as generally appropriate for their learners, learners in 44% of the classes do not have their own textbooks. Teachers use a variety of textbooks, some of which are outdated or not appropriate for FAL teaching. Sixty percent of teachers do not use electronic or audio-visual materials in their FAL teaching. Teachers experience a shortage of a great variety of Afrikaans teaching resources for their FAL teaching, especially textbooks, audio-visual material, readers, story books and non-fiction books (see 5.2.9).

6.3.2.2 *Findings from the semi-structured interviews*

Most teachers did not have any formal training in the methodology of FAL teaching, as their training mainly focused on Afrikaans First Language or generic methodologies for the intermediate or senior primary phase. The majority of teachers have had no or very little training and input from the WCED specifically relating to the Afrikaans FAL curriculum or the implementation of FAL methodologies in the classroom. The few teachers who did attend such workshops described them as very theoretical with no reference to the practical aspects of the curriculum. WCED visits to schools do not provide guidance and support to the teacher, but are used to check whether teachers comply with the departmental requirements.

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Very little of the curriculum documentation received from the WCED is in Afrikaans and even the work schedules teachers use to plan their Afrikaans FAL lessons are in English (see 5.3.1).

Afrikaans FAL teachers' rate their own proficiency in the target language as being average to excellent. Many teachers speak mostly English outside the Afrikaans classroom and some of them are not confident speakers of Afrikaans; however, there are teachers whose mother tongue is Afrikaans and who are very proficient in the language. Although the majority of teachers are in favour of the policy that all learners should do a first additional language, not all of them feel that learners should be forced to choose Afrikaans as the FAL, as is the case in many WCED urban schools. Most teachers do agree that Afrikaans does still have a rightful place as FAL in the Western Cape (see 5.3.1).

The results indicate that the teachers do not have a thorough knowledge and understanding of national and provincial language policies. Many teachers confuse these policies with the curriculum (RNCS). The results further clearly show that schools do not implement the language policies and curriculum as intended and there is no consistency as to at what level learners are formally introduced to the FAL (see 5.3.2).

Most learners manage to achieve the expected levels of proficiency in speaking and reading aloud, but they struggle to perform at the expected levels in listening, reading with understanding, writing and grammar. The teachers ascribe the learners' poor performance to the learners', their parents' and in some cases the teachers' negative attitude towards Afrikaans. This negative attitude stems from the political history of the language. Other contributing factors are the learners' lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom and the lack of time on the timetable to cover the curriculum and do remedial interventions, as well as the unpreparedness of learners because they have not been exposed to Afrikaans since Grade 1 (see 5.3.3). Despite the fact that the Foundations for Learning and the WCED work schedules are available only in English, more teachers use these documents to inform and guide their Afrikaans FAL teaching than the RNCS. The results indicate that teachers find the Afrikaans FAL curriculum too full and the expectations of learners too high. Teachers struggle to complete the FAL curriculum in the time allocated on the timetable. Most schools allocate three hours per week to Afrikaans FAL teaching, but this time is not always used for Afrikaans. Many other subjects take preference (see 5.3.4).

The results reveal that the teachers do not have a clear knowledge or understanding of FAL methodologies and language teaching and learning theories. None of the teachers could name a FAL teaching methodology or refer to constructivism or social constructivism as

underpinning theories for language learning. All teachers only mentioned the daily activities that learners do in their FAL classes. Teachers still use activities which are characteristic of the audio-lingual method and a teacher-centred approach, and a lot of translation or instruction in the learners' mother tongue is still done in the Afrikaans FAL classroom. Some teachers integrate the different language skills in their lessons; however, many teachers still teach the different language skills separately by focusing on one aspect per lesson, e.g. reading for comprehension, grammar or listening. Other teachers teach according to the assessment programme and therefore only teach those language skills or structures that will be assessed next. Teachers enjoy teaching grammar, speaking and reading aloud most. The skills they enjoy teaching the least are writing and listening (see 5.3.5).

Teachers rely a lot on the textbook as teaching and learning resource, although some of them feel the content and language level of some textbooks are not appropriate for the learners. They also use their own notes and old modules from previous years as resources. The majority of teachers do not use electronic media such as computers as teaching aids (see 5.3.6).

According to the data, the Afrikaans FAL teachers' biggest challenge is dealing with the learners' and their parents' negative attitude towards Afrikaans. Another challenge is the shortage of Afrikaans teaching and learning materials which are appropriate to the learners' ages and language proficiency. The very full FAL curriculum and the limited time on the timetable are also described as challenges. Teachers find it difficult to deal with learners of different proficiency levels of Afrikaans in one class. Teachers want the WCED to provide more support and guidance with regard to the practical implementation of the curriculum and new developments in FAL methodologies. Teachers also expressed the need for networking opportunities with other FAL teachers to share their experiences, knowledge, challenges and new ideas (see 5.3.7).

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

The main focus of this study was to determine and describe the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the intermediate phase in Western Cape urban schools. The questionnaire for the collection of the quantitative data and the interview questions for the semi-structured interviews focused on the same themes to allow the researcher to compare the two sets of data.

The quantitative data analysis clearly revealed that English is the LoLT in the majority of schools that participated in the research and that Afrikaans is one of, or the only, FAL offered

at these schools. The majority of learners at the participating schools are English mother-tongue speakers, who experience little exposure to the target language outside the FAL classroom. The two sets of data confirmed that the majority of the learners struggle most with reading comprehension, writing, grammar and to some extent listening, but they fare better at speaking and reading aloud. The teachers repeatedly mentioned the learners' and their parents' negative attitude towards Afrikaans and the lack of exposure to the target language outside the classroom as reasons for the learners' poor performance.

Both sets of data confirmed that very few of these teachers have appropriate training in Afrikaans FAL teaching. The majority of the teachers qualified before 1995 and therefore have not been exposed to the RNCS in their formal training. Although, according to the quantitative data, the teachers make use of a variety of teaching strategies, the interviews confirmed that they do not have much knowledge about appropriate FAL methodologies and FAL teaching and learning theories. Certain activities and practices that are not in line with CLT and point to a more teacher-centred approach are still used in many of the classrooms, e.g. choral repetition, learning of vocabulary lists, over-emphasis of errors, translation activities and prepared orals. Teachers may have had many years of experience in teaching Afrikaans FAL, but both sets of data highlight the lack of support and guidance from the WCED with regard to in-service training and workshops on new developments in FAL teaching, specifically aimed at Afrikaans as FAL. It is clear from the data that most of the teachers locate the blame for their lack of training and knowledge outside of themselves, e.g. the WCED and the curriculum advisors.

It is very evident from the quantitative and qualitative data that the teachers' knowledge of national, provincial and school language policies is extremely limited and in some instances non-existent. Most of the respondents confused the language policies with the RNCS. In many cases neither the teachers nor the parents participated in or influenced the formulation of the school's language policy. Many schools do not adhere to the RNCS prescriptions that the FAL should be introduced in Grade 1, although the time allocation for Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase is mostly in line with the Foundations for Learning and RNCS requirements. Most of the teachers implement the Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards of the RNCS in their planning and teaching, but many also rely on the Foundations for Learning, the WCED work schedules or even textbooks.

Both sets of data revealed that these Afrikaans FAL teachers experience a dire need for age- and language-level-appropriate teaching and learning materials. Not all learners have their own textbooks to work from, although this is the resource most used as LTSM by the teachers. Many teachers also rely on their own material, e.g. work sheets, which they have

developed over the years. Little use is made of authentic texts such as newspaper and magazine articles and advertisements. The data also indicate the teachers' frustration at the lack of Afrikaans readers that are pitched at their learners' different levels of proficiency in the target language. Sixty percent of the respondents indicated that they do not use computers or audio-visual materials in their FAL classrooms. This can most likely be ascribed to the following reasons: the teachers have never been trained how to incorporate these materials and media into their teaching; the schools have insufficient electronic and audio-visual media available; or there is a shortage of appropriate electronic and audio-visual material available in Afrikaans.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study originated from the researcher's desire to make a substantial contribution to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in primary schools. Based on the findings of the study (see 5.3 and 5.4) the following recommendations are made.

6.5.1 Training of pre-service teachers

It is of the utmost importance that the initial training of teachers be upgraded and adapted to keep up with the latest developments in the field of first additional language teaching, especially Afrikaans, the use of technology in the teaching of languages, and an interactive approach to language teaching. Initial teacher training programmes at HEIs should focus on the development of student-teachers' Afrikaans proficiency and not only concentrate on improving their competence in English. The reality is that any teacher in an urban primary school in the Western Cape may be expected to teach Afrikaans FAL.

6.5.2 In-service training and support from the WCED

Qualified teachers must have a thorough knowledge of the curriculum, subject content and language teaching methodologies (see 2.4). The WCED should revisit its in-service training programmes and consider backing up its initial curriculum training programmes (especially for Afrikaans FAL) with sustained and continuous follow-up training sessions to all in-service teachers in the intermediate phase. The in-service training should also be expanded to introduce FAL teachers to the latest developments in FAL methodologies and teaching and learning strategies.

One of the major challenges for teachers is the learners' negative attitude towards Afrikaans. It is important that the WCED assist the teachers in developing strategies to address this challenge in the classroom. The promotion of Afrikaans as one of the official languages of the Western Cape should therefore be an explicit priority for the WCED. The department should ensure that only teachers who are proficient in the target language, Afrikaans, are expected to teach Afrikaans as FAL. Confident teachers who speak the target language fluently and display a positive attitude towards the language they teach will contribute towards a more positive classroom atmosphere that is conducive to the acquisition of a new language.

6.5.3 Implementation of language-in-education policies and the national curriculum

It is recommended that school management teams ensure that the national and provincial language-in-education policies and the national curriculum requirements regarding the teaching of FAL are adhered to. School governing bodies should determine the schools' language policies and the parent bodies should be involved in these decisions. Learners in the primary schools should be introduced to the first additional language from Grade 1 in order for them to be able to perform at the expected levels in the intermediate phase. The WCED should monitor the implementation of these policies and the curriculum in the schools carefully. Although there is agreement that all learners should be exposed to a first additional language, it is recommended that the WCED, the school management teams and the school governing bodies find a solution to the situation where indigenous and other foreign language mother-tongue speakers are forced to take Afrikaans as FAL when it actually is their SAL or even a foreign language.

6.5.4 Provision of LTSM

The reported shortage of appropriate Afrikaans FAL LTSM has a negative impact on teaching and learning in the classroom. It is recommended that the WCED provides additional age- and language-level-appropriate Afrikaans resources to primary schools. These resources should include audio-visual materials, computers including Afrikaans computer programs which can be used in computer-assisted language teaching and learning. Teachers also need to be trained in how to use and integrate these electronic teaching aids into their language teaching.

6.5.5 Curriculum adjustments

The literature has shown that when the curriculum is too challenging and congested, teachers choose what they teach based on their own preferences and subject knowledge (see 3.3.1). The majority of learners do not achieve the expected levels of competence in the target language as set out in the curriculum. The expected outcomes for Afrikaans FAL and English FAL are the same, although the purpose of teaching the two languages differs. The DBE should revisit the expected levels of competence for each grade for Afrikaans FAL and put forward more realistic and achievable expectations.

6.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THIS STUDY

This study contributes to the current knowledge on the teaching of additional languages in South Africa. In this case the teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional Language in the intermediate phase is investigated and the findings of this study highlight the challenges Afrikaans FAL teachers are confronted with on a daily basis. With the national emphasis on English as First Additional Language, much research has been conducted in this area, but very little data are available on the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in the 564 Western Cape urban primary schools (see 3.2.2). In many of these schools the learners have no option but to choose Afrikaans as FAL, although it is their Second Additional Language or even a foreign language. This is even more reason why the teachers of Afrikaans FAL should be well trained and equipped to face this challenging task.

The information gathered on the current state of the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in intermediate phase classes in Western Cape urban schools will inform the Western Cape Education Department of the real situation in the classrooms. It is evident from the results that there is very little interaction between the department and the teachers regarding Afrikaans FAL teaching. This knowledge may encourage the WCED to design and implement effective in-service training programmes for Afrikaans FAL teachers and monitor the implementation of the training in the classroom. Another outcome of this study may also be an equal distribution of resources for the effective teaching of all three official languages in Western Cape primary schools.

HEIs that are responsible for the training of pre-service teachers will be able to focus on the current challenges in the classroom, as identified in this study, and adapt or re-design their modules on Afrikaans FAL teaching in order to prepare the new teachers to manage these challenges effectively.

This study has highlighted the fact that the majority of the schools fail to implement the national and provincial language policies and curricula with regard to Afrikaans FAL as intended. A report on the findings of this study will be made available to the WCED, which may result in the department providing stronger guidance and support to schools in the implementation of the current policies.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

During this study the researcher experienced the following limitations:

- 6.7.1 Research on the teaching of first additional languages (second languages) is plentiful, but the focus is usually on English as first additional language, both locally and internationally. There is a very limited pool of research on Afrikaans First Additional Language teaching in South African primary schools the researcher could draw on.
- 6.7.2 Although there are many urban schools in the Western Cape where the home language of the majority of learners is Afrikaans and isiXhosa, these schools have not been involved in this research because Afrikaans is not offered as FAL at these schools. The results and findings are therefore only valid within the research parameters of this study and not applicable to the teaching of all first additional languages in Western Cape urban schools.
- 6.7.3 The data-collection phase of this study was undertaken during the time when the RNCS was still the national curriculum in the intermediate phase. Since 2013 a new curriculum, CAPS, has been introduced in all intermediate phase classrooms. Although reference is made to RNCS-specific elements such as learning areas, learning outcomes and assessment standards, the fundamental challenges in Afrikaans FAL teaching are still the same and need to be addressed.
- 6.7.4 The composition of the sample group for the interviews was somewhat problematic. The researcher selected the schools to participate in the interviews randomly from those that indicated their willingness to participate. However, when the researcher contacted the teachers at these schools to arrange the interviews, some of the teachers had changed their minds and the researcher had to choose other schools and teachers. In some instances not all the teachers turned up for the interviews. As a result the researcher was pressed for time to complete all the interviews within the time frame approved by the WCED and eventually only 17 instead of 20 teachers were interviewed.

6.7.5 The researcher distributed 261 questionnaires in both Afrikaans and English and received back 125 completed questionnaires. Unfortunately not all respondents answered all the questions on the questionnaire. This could have been because of the length of the questionnaire, or respondents may not have understood all the questions, although the questions were phrased in simple language and the questionnaires were available in both English and Afrikaans. The researcher did pilot the questionnaire and the feedback indicated that the language was appropriate and the questions were not ambiguous. Another possibility may be that the respondents just did not know what to answer. In some cases it seemed as if the respondents' answers were changed to reflect what they thought the researcher expected them to answer. This phenomenon was anticipated, however, and the questionnaire was designed in such a way to internally verify the responses. The follow-up semi-structured interviews also served as triangulation of the quantitative data.

6.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The research on this topic has by no means been exhausted. The study placed several aspects of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the spotlight. Further research could include the following topics:

- 6.8.1 The teaching of other first additional languages, e.g. English and isiXhosa, in Western Cape primary schools.
- 6.8.2 The implementation of CAPS in the teaching of Afrikaans FAL in the intermediate phase.
- 6.8.3 The implementation of the national and provincial language policies in schools.
- 6.8.4 The extension of this research to the Foundation Phase, Senior Phase and Further Education and Training Phase.
- 6.8.5 The evaluation of the availability and quality of Afrikaans FAL LTSM in primary schools.
- 6.8.6 Research on initial teacher training programmes in preparing teachers to teach an additional language.

6.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The researcher became aware of the challenges in the Afrikaans FAL classrooms in urban primary schools in the Western Cape through her interactions with student teachers. This study was a mixed methods investigation into the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools.

The relevance of this study lies in the national drive towards the promotion of multi-lingualism among the general population, and especially in education. The researcher followed a mixed methods approach (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews), supported by a theoretical framework for language teaching and learning, a literature study pertaining to first additional language teaching and an analysis of FAL curricula. Constructivism and social constructivism were identified as the underpinning theories for language teaching and learning. The literature study provided an overview of all the major methodologies relevant to FAL teaching. The researcher came to the conclusion that there is no single method or approach that will ensure effective FAL teaching, but that an eclectic approach will deliver the best results.

Teachers are caught up in traditional language teaching methods and strategies, which do not contribute to the development of learners' performance in the target language. A new method or approach is needed. According to the latest research in the field and the new school curriculum, teachers should follow an integrated, communicative and text-based approach to FAL teaching. The WCED expects teachers to implement a balanced language approach, where the focus is on the teaching of reading, while integrating the other communicative skills, using scaffolding strategies. It is therefore the responsibility of the HEIs and the WCED to ensure that initial teacher training programmes and in-service training workshops prepare the teachers adequately to implement the prescribed curriculum using appropriate methodologies and strategies.

The study also closely examined the different types of knowledge that a language teacher should have. The literature indicates that the teacher should have a thorough knowledge of the curriculum, the subject content, teaching and learning theories, the methodologies of teaching the subject (PCK) and that the language teacher should also be fairly proficient in the target language. It was disconcerting to find that the teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, language policies and methodologies is extremely limited. The expectation is that the situation will not be much different in other schools.

Furthermore, the study looked at the use of appropriate and relevant LTSM in the FAL classroom. It was found that most teachers still mainly use the textbook as teaching resource and that they experience a great shortage of appropriate Afrikaans LTSM. The expectation is that, in the present age of technology, learners' interest will be stimulated through the use of technological teaching aids. Teachers should therefore have access to and use a variety of media and technological teaching aids and be capable of integrating them effectively into their language teaching. The WCED should also ensure that sufficient and appropriate LTSM are available to teachers and that the teachers are trained to use these materials in their teaching.

The role of the learner in the teaching and learning process was also investigated. It became evident that many learners and parents have a negative attitude towards Afrikaans. Teachers are not equipped with teaching strategies and techniques to manage these negative attitudes. The results show that many teachers still follow a teacher-centred approach to teaching, which is an indication that learners are not given enough opportunities to develop their communicative competence through interaction with others.

The aim of this study was to investigate and describe the current state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in selected Grade 4 – 6 classes in Western Cape urban schools. This was done by presenting an overview of the literature relevant to FAL teaching and FAL curricula as well as the results from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with Grade 4 – 6 teachers. This study does not offer a quick-fix solution to the problems in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, but the researcher believes that the findings will highlight the daily challenges that Afrikaans FAL teachers have to face and that all role players will need to become actively involved in improving the state of Afrikaans FAL teaching in the Western Cape.

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**Appendix A: Copy of application to conduct research in public schools
within the Western Cape**



20 May 2011

The Director: Research
Western Cape Education Department
Cape Town

Dear Dr R S Cornelissen/Dr A Wyngaard

**APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS WITHIN THE
WESTERN CAPE**


I am Mrs Christa Thornhill, a senior lecturer at Cape Peninsula University of Technology and a PhD student at the Faculty of Education of Stellenbosch University.

The title of my thesis is: First Additional Language teaching in grades 4 – 6 in Western Cape urban schools: the case of Afrikaans. In order for me to conduct this research, I shall need data collected from teachers teaching Afrikaans as FAL in about 80 public primary and high schools within the four urban districts. Teachers will be asked to complete a questionnaire and interviews will be conducted with some of the participants. I shall conduct the interviews with the teachers after hours and there will be no financial implications for the schools or the teachers. The teachers will complete the questionnaires anonymously, only the schools' names will be entered on the forms for administrative purposes.

Herewith I ask permission from the Western Cape Education Department to embark on this research project during the third term of 2011. Attached you will find the completed prescribed form from the WCED.

Thank you for considering my application.

Yours truly

A handwritten signature in blue ink, which appears to read 'Aethanhill'.

Mrs Christa Thornhill
thornhillc@cput.ac.za
082 603 5400

Appendix B: Copy of document from the WCED granting permission to undertake the study

RESEARCH



WESTERN CAPE
Education Department
Provincial Government of the Western Cape

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PUBLIC
SCHOOLS WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE

awyngaard@pgwc.gov.za

tel: +27 021 476 9272

Fax: 0865902282

APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS
WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000
wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20110601-0023

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mrs Anna Christina Thornhill
Faculty of Education and Social Sciences
Highbury Road
Mowbray
7700

Dear Anna Christina Thornhill

**RESEARCH PROPOSAL: FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING IN GRADE 4 – 9 IN
WESTERN CAPE URBAN SCHOOLS: THE CASE FOR AFRIKAANS**

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **18 July 2011 till 30 September 2011**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:
The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Audrey T Wyngaard

for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**

DATE: 02 June 2011

Appendix C: Copy of letter to principals of schools requesting permission to undertake research in their schools



Highbury Road
MOWBRAY
7700

17 June 2011

Dear Principal

Afrikaans First Additional Language Research Project

I am Christa Thornhill, a senior lecturer at Cape Peninsula University of Technology and a PhD student of the Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University. I am currently conducting research into the teaching of additional languages in WCED schools in the Cape Metropole. The focus of this study is Afrikaans First Additional Language in grades 4 – 6 in urban schools in the Western Cape. This research has been approved by the Director: Research Services of the WCED and will be conducted during the third term of 2011 (see attached letter from Dr A Wyngaard).

The purpose of the research is to inform and make recommendations to the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences of CPUT regarding Additional Language issues such as curriculum, methodology, staffing, and teaching resources. Your school's participation in this important research will be greatly valued. I would appreciate it if one or two intermediate and/or senior phase teachers of Afrikaans First Additional Language could be asked to complete a questionnaire. The identity of the school and the teachers who participate will remain anonymous. Research findings will be made available to all participants.

I shall contact you within the next week in order to confirm your participation. The group leader of the intermediate and senior phase students who will be doing their practice teaching at your school during the third term will deliver the questionnaires and consent forms to you personally to distribute to the participating teachers. I would appreciate it if you could identify and ask two teachers of Afrikaans First Additional Language in the intermediate/senior phase who will be willing to take part in this research project voluntarily, to complete the questionnaire.

If you agree to your school's participation in this research project, you are requested to sign the attached consent form for the research to be conducted in your school, and fax it to me at the following number: 021 680 1504. The completed original consent form should be returned to me with the completed questionnaires. The completed forms can be returned to the student group leader before the end of the practice teaching session on 12 August. This may be followed up with interviews with some of the teachers who have completed the questionnaires. The randomly selected teachers will be approached towards the second half of the third term.

I shall appreciate your assistance in this project aimed at improving additional language teaching.

Yours truly

Christa Thornhill
Afrikaans FAL Lecturer
CPUT: Faculty of Education and Social Sciences
thornhillc@cput.ac.za
021 680 1512 (tel)
021 680 1504 (fax)

CONSENT FORM TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOL

Dear Mrs. C. Thornhill

Herewith I, _____ (your name), principal of
_____ (name of school), grant you permission
to conduct your research on the teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional Language in
grades 4 - 6 in urban Western Cape schools in my school.

Yours truly

_____ (signature)

_____ (Name in print)

Appendix D: Copy of letter and consent form to teachers



Highbury Road
MOWBRAY
7700
17 June 2011

Dear Afrikaans Teacher

PERMISSION TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH PROJECT

I am Christa Thornhill, a senior lecturer in the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences at CPUT (Cape Peninsula University of Technology) and a registered PhD student in Curriculum Studies at Stellenbosch University. I am currently conducting research into the teaching of additional languages in WCED schools in the Cape Metropole.

The focus of this study is Afrikaans First Additional Language in grades 4 – 6 in urban schools in the Western Cape. As part of my research I will be collecting data from 18 July 2011 until 12 August 2011 by means of a comprehensive questionnaire which will be completed by teachers of Afrikaans First Additional Language in grade 4 – 6 classes in urban Western Cape schools. This will be followed up with personal interviews with some of the teachers who have completed the questionnaire. The purpose of the research is to inform and make recommendations to the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences of CPUT regarding Additional Language issues such as curriculum, methodology, staffing, and teaching resources.

The identity of the school and the teachers who participate will remain anonymous. Research findings will be made available to all participants.

This research project has been approved by the WCED and the principal

If you are willing to participate voluntarily in this research project by completing the questionnaire and possibly take part in a personal interview, please complete the accompanying letter of permission and return it with the completed questionnaire to the principal before 10 August 2011.

CONSENT FORM

Dear Mrs. C. Thornhill

Herewith I declare myself, _____ (your name), willing to participate voluntarily in the research project on the teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional Language in grades 4 - 6 in urban Western Cape schools.

Yours truly

_____ (signature)

_____ (Name in print)

Appendix E: Copy of informed consent form presented to participants in interviews



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

First additional language teaching in Grades 4 – 6 in Western Cape urban schools: the case of Afrikaans.

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Christa Thornhill, BA, HDE, BEd (Curriculum Studies), MEd (Curriculum Studies), from the Faculty of Education, Department Curriculum Studies at Stellenbosch University. The results of this study will form part of a PhD thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are teaching Afrikaans as first additional language to grade 4 – 6 learners at an urban school in the Western Cape.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to determine the current state of Afrikaans First Additional Language (FAL) teaching at intermediate and senior phase level in urban Western Cape schools.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Complete a comprehensive questionnaire anonymously on your teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional Language. The questionnaire will be delivered to your school by the researcher and it will take about 50 minutes to complete. You can complete the questionnaire in your own time.

Take part in an interview with the researcher on your teaching of Afrikaans as First Additional language. The interview questions will be made available to you before the interview. The interview will last about 30 minutes and will be conducted between 14:00 and 15:00 at your school. The time for the interview will be arranged well in advance.

2. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No risks or inconvenience are foreseen.

3. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

If you participate in the research it will enable the researcher to determine what the current state of Afrikaans First Additional Language teaching is in intermediate and senior phase classes in urban schools of the Western Cape. This will allow the researcher and other first additional language lecturers at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology to make informed decisions about curriculum and syllabus design for purposes of teacher training. In this way we shall be able to prepare pre-service teachers of Afrikaans FAL to make a significant contribution to the teaching of languages in a multi-lingual society.

If the data reveal that there is a need among in-service teachers of Afrikaans FAL for the upgrading of their skills in FAL teaching, CPUT will be able to design and offer such short courses.

4. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No remuneration will be paid to you as the interviews will take place between 14:00 and 15:00 which forms part of your working hours at the school.

5. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of anonymous completion of questionnaires and participation in interviews. Participants will only be identified by a code to the transcriber of the interviews. The questionnaires and digital recordings of interviews will be kept in the safe of the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences on the Mowbray campus. The data will be saved on a computer which requires a password that is only known to the researcher.

You will have the right to review the audio tape at the end of the interview. The information will only be made available to the researcher, transcriber and supervisor. All completed questionnaires and audio tapes will be destroyed once the degree has been awarded to the researcher.

The results of the study will be published as part of a PhD thesis and possibly in an article in an accredited journal. All participants' identity will remain confidential as no names of schools or participants will be made known.

6. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The researcher may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so

7. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Mrs Christa Thornhill (researcher)

Telephone: (021) 680 1512

Address: Faculty of Education

Highbury Road

Mowbray

Dr MLA le Cordeur (supervisor)

Telephone: (021) 808 2300

Address: Faculty of Education

Department Curriculum Studies

GG Cillie building, Stellenbosch

8. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me, _____, by Christa Thornhill in _____ and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ and/or his/her representative. He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans/English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix F: Copy of questionnaire (English)

CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Teacher Questionnaire:

Teaching Afrikaans as a First Additional Language (FAL)

The aim of this questionnaire is to look at current issues related to teaching Afrikaans as a First Additional Language (FAL) in WCED urban schools, in order to identify areas that may be in need of more attention and support. The purpose of the research is to make recommendations to the Faculty of Education and Social Sciences at CPUT regarding Additional Language issues such as curriculum, methodology, staffing, and teaching resources.

I would *really* appreciate it if you could share information and your thoughts with me.

I will not ask you for your name or make your school's identity known to outside parties.

Section 1: School profile

1. Name of school: _____

2. School Education District
(Mark one box with an X)

Metro North (1)	Metro South (2)	Metro East (3)	Metro West (4)
-----------------	-----------------	----------------	----------------

3. Official language/s of learning and teaching (LOLT) at the school
(Mark all relevant boxes with an X)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	English (3)	Other (4)
--------------	---------------	-------------	-----------

If *Other*, please specify: _____

4. The school is

parallel medium (e.g. Afrikaans and English in separate classes)	Yes (1)	No (2)
dual medium (e.g. Afrikaans and English in the same class)	Yes (1)	No (2)
monolingual (e.g. English is the only LOLT in all classes)	Yes (1)	No (2)

Section 2: Learner profile and proficiency

5. What is the home language/mother tongue of the **majority** of learners at the school? (*Mark one box only with an X*)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	English (3)	Other indigenous South African language (4)	Other non-South African language (5)
There are two majority language groups. (6)		Most learners use two or more languages equally at home. (7)		There is no majority language group (mixed group) (8)

If 6 or 7, please specify: _____

6. When not in the Afrikaans FAL classroom, how often do most learners in the school hear or use Afrikaans?

(*Mark relevant box with an X*)

In other classes at school	All or most of the time (1)	Sometimes (2)	Hardly ever or never (3)	Don't know (4)
At home or in their community	All or most of the time (1)	Sometimes (2)	Hardly ever or never (3)	Don't know (4)

7. How many of the children overall in the Afrikaans FAL classes that you teach perform at the level indicated in the NCS for their particular grade?

Please mark in relation to each one of the following (*one X per row*):

Listening and understanding	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)
Reading aloud	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)
Speaking	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)
Reading with comprehension	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)
Writing	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)
Grammatical accuracy	All (1)	Most/three quarters (2)	At least half (3)	At least a quarter (4)	Fewer than one quarter (5)

8. If you indicated 4 or 5 for any of the options in Question 7 above, what would you consider the most important reason for the learners' poor performance.

(*Mark one box only with an X*)

The Assessment Standards are too high (1)	
The time allocated per week is not enough (2)	
Exposure to the target language is insufficient (3)	
Teacher's proficiency is lacking (4)	
The attitude of the learners is negative (5)	

Section 3: Teacher profile

9. What language/s do **you** speak most of the time at home?

(Mark one box only with an X)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	English (3)	Other (4)	I use two or more languages equally at home (5)
--------------	---------------	-------------	-----------	---

If 4 or 5, please specify: _____

10. In which grade/s are you teaching Afrikaans as FAL in 2011?

(Mark relevant box or boxes with an X)

R	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	

11. In which grade/s are you teaching Afrikaans as SAL in 2011?

(Mark relevant box or boxes with an X)

R	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	

12. What do you use as the medium of instruction in your Afrikaans FAL classes?

(Mark one box with an X)

Afrikaans only (1)	Mostly Afrikaans, with some English (2)	English and Afrikaans in more or less equal amounts (3)	Mainly English, with less Afrikaans (4)
--------------------	---	---	---

For questions 13 to 16, mark one box per question with an X.

13. How many years (including this year) have you been a school teacher?

0-1 years (1)	2-5 years (2)	6-10 years (3)	11 years or more (4)
---------------	---------------	----------------	----------------------

14. How many years (including this year) have you been a teacher at this school?

0-1 years (1)	2-5 years (2)	6-10 years (3)	11 years or more (4)
---------------	---------------	----------------	----------------------

15. How many years (including this year) have you taught Afrikaans as FAL?

0-1 years (1)	2-5 years (2)	6-10 years (3)	11 years or more (4)
---------------	---------------	----------------	----------------------

16. How many years (including this year) have you taught Afrikaans as SAL?

0-1 years (1)	2-5 years (2)	6-10 years (3)	11 years or more (4)
---------------	---------------	----------------	----------------------

17. a. Please list the qualifications you obtained after school.

- b. In what year did you obtain your highest qualification?

--	--	--	--	--

18. What is the highest level at which you studied Afrikaans in your post-school qualifications (e.g. at second year level)?

(Mark one box with an X)

No Afrikaans in post-school qualification (1)	Course/s with a duration of less than a full year (e.g. module/ semester courses) (2)	1 year (3)	2 years (4)	3 years (5)	4 years (6)	4+ years (7)
---	---	------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	--------------

19. a. Indicate the highest level at which you qualified in the **teaching** of Additional Language (language methodology).

(Mark one box with an X)

Diploma (1)	Undergraduate (2)
Graduate [as a major] (3)	Honours (4)
Masters (5)	Other (6)

If *Other*, please specify: _____

- b. In what year did you obtain this qualification?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

20. How well, in your opinion, did your training prepare you for teaching Afrikaans FAL and/or SAL? (Mark one box with an X)

Very well (1)	Adequately (2)	Poorly (3)	Not at all (4)
---------------	----------------	------------	----------------

Questions 21 to 26 are about any in-service training for Afrikaans FAL you may have had.

21. Have you ever attended any **in-service** teacher training short courses that have been **specific to the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) for Afrikaans FAL**?

Yes (1)	No (2)
If Yes, please answer questions 21 to 26 for all the in-service Afrikaans AL courses you attended.	If No, go to question 27.

22. What was the focus of the training?

(Mark relevant box/es with X)

Assessment practice (1)	Understanding policy documents (2)	Curriculum planning and coverage (3)	Teaching methods(4)	Guidance with classroom material/ textbooks(5)
-------------------------	------------------------------------	--------------------------------------	---------------------	--

23. Who provided the training?

(Mark relevant box/es with X)

WCED officials (1)	School Management Team member/s (2)	NGO or other INSET provider (3)	University (4)	Other (5)
--------------------	-------------------------------------	---------------------------------	----------------	-----------

24. Approximately how long (in days) was this in-service training in total? _____ days

25. In which year/s did the training mentioned in 21 take place?

--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

26. Have you been able to implement the training indicated in 21?

Yes/No

If *No*, please explain why this has not been possible. _____

27. What support or training in Afrikaans FAL is in your opinion still most needed?

28. Does the Department provide in-service training/information regarding **developments in additional language methodology**? Yes/No

If Yes, please specify what training opportunities or information you are aware of.

29. Rate your own proficiency in Afrikaans in relation to each of the following:

(Mark each row with one X)

Listening and understanding	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Reading aloud	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Speaking	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Reading with comprehension	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Writing	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Grammatical accuracy	Weak (1)	Average (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)

30. Rate your enjoyment of teaching Afrikaans as a First Additional Language (FAL).

(Mark one box with an X)

Always enjoy teaching FAL (1)	Usually enjoy teaching FAL (2)	Sometimes enjoy teaching FAL (3)	Rarely enjoy teaching FAL (4)	Never enjoy teaching FAL (5)
-------------------------------	--------------------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------------------	------------------------------

31. What is the main reason for your response in question 30?

Section 4: National and regional language policy issues

32. How familiar are you with the official Language Policies of the following?

(Mark one box with an X)

the Department of Basic Education	Very familiar (1)	Fairly familiar (2)	Not at all familiar(3)
the WCED	Very familiar (1)	Fairly familiar (2)	Not at all familiar(3)

33. In what ways do these policies influence your classroom practice?

34. It is currently compulsory for all learners to study at least one additional language at school. To what extent do you agree with this policy?

(Mark one box with an X)

Strongly agree with it (1)	Agree with it (2)	Not sure (3)	Disagree with it (4)	Strongly disagree with it (5)
----------------------------	-------------------	--------------	----------------------	-------------------------------

35. Which of the following statements best reflect your beliefs?

(Mark one or more box/es? with an X)

English is an international language and should therefore be the only language taught in South African schools. (1)	
South Africa is a multilingual/multicultural country and therefore everybody should know at least one other indigenous language. (2)	
The curriculum is already too full and learners should not have to learn more than one language. (3)	
Learning other languages contributes towards cognitive development; therefore it is good that learners have to learn more than one language. (4)	
Learning other languages is necessary for effective communication in a multilingual work environment. (5)	

Section 5: School language policy

36. Does your school have a language policy?

Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't know (3)
---------	--------	----------------

If Yes, please answer questions 36 and 37.

37. Is the school's language policy aligned to the WCED's Language Transformation Plan?

Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't know (3)
---------	--------	----------------

38. Is the implementation of the language plan closely monitored by the school's management team?

Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't know (3)
---------	--------	----------------

39. How does your school's language policy support the teaching of Afrikaans FAL?

40. How much participation or influence did **teachers** at the school have in the formulation of the current school language policy?

(Mark one box with an X)

A great deal (1)	Some (2)	None (3)	Don't know (4)
------------------	----------	----------	----------------

41. How much participation or influence did the **general parent body** have in decisions around the current language policy?

(Mark one box with an X)

A great deal (1)	Some (2)	None (3)	Don't know (4)
------------------	----------	----------	----------------

42. Answer the following question only if your school is a primary school.

In which grade does instruction in Afrikaans FAL start for exposure and informal oral communication only?	
In which grade does formal instruction, including reading and writing, start?	

Section 6: Instructional timetabling

43. How many hours of instruction per week are allocated to Afrikaans FAL for the phase/s you teach?

	hours/week (Write the number)
Intermediate Phase	_____ hours
Senior Phase	_____ hours

44. How much **more time** per week do you think should be allocated to Afrikaans FAL for the phases you teach?

(Mark one box per row with an X for the phases that apply to you.)

Intermediate Phase	None (0)	1 hour more (1)	1-2 hours (2)	2-3 hours (3)	3+ hours (4)
Senior Phase	None (0)	1 hour more (1)	1-2 hours (2)	2-3 hours (3)	3+ hours (4)

45. If you think more time is required, what would you use this additional time for?

Section 7: Curriculum planning and delivery

46. When planning your teaching programme for Afrikaans FAL each year, which official document (e.g. NCS) do you **mainly** use?

(Mark the appropriate box with an X)

NCS (1)	WCED Work Schedules: Blue Box (2)
Foundations for Learning (3)	Other (4)

If *Other*, please specify: _____

47. How familiar are you with the NCS requirements for Afrikaans FAL teaching?

(Mark one box with an X)

Very familiar – know the content very well (1)	Fairly familiar with the content (2)	Not at all familiar with the content (3)
--	--------------------------------------	--

48. To what extent do you implement the **Learning Outcomes** of the NCS in your lesson planning and presentation?

(Mark one box with an X)

Always implement them (1)	Implement them most of the time (2)	Try to implement them but struggle to do so (3)	Sometimes implement them (4)	Never implement them (5)
---------------------------	-------------------------------------	---	------------------------------	--------------------------

49. To what extent do you implement the **Assessment Standards** of the NCS in your lesson planning and presentation?

(Mark one box with an X)

Always implement them (1)	Implement them most of the time (2)	Try to implement them but struggle to do so (3)	Sometimes implement them (4)	Never implement them (5)
---------------------------	-------------------------------------	---	------------------------------	--------------------------

50. How much influence do you have over selecting the **content** of the additional language you teach?

(Mark one box with an X)

A great deal (1)	Some (2)	None (3)	Don't know (4)
------------------	----------	----------	----------------

Section 8: Teaching methodology

51. To what extent do you as an individual have the freedom to decide on the teaching **methodology** used in your Afrikaans FAL classroom?

(Mark one box with an X)

A great deal (1)	Some (2)	None (3)
------------------	----------	----------

52. How important do you consider the following aspects to be for effective additional language teaching and learning in the classroom?

(Mark one box per row with an X)

	Not important (1)	Important (2)	Very important (3)
Listening with understanding			
Speaking fluently			
Reading and viewing			
Writing accurately			
Grammar			
Motivation and attitude of learners			
Motivation and attitude of teacher			
Combination of comprehension, speaking, listening, reading and writing skills			
Suitable resources			
Suitable textbooks			
Enough time			
Thinking and reasoning			
Other			

If *Other*, please specify: _____

53. What would you consider to be the **three** most important factors impacting **negatively** on your learners' progress in Afrikaans FAL?

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

54. Please indicate how often you use the following methodological practices in your classroom when teaching Afrikaans FAL.

(Mark one box per row with an X)

A	METHOD	Never (1)	Sometimes (2)	Regularly (3)	All the time (4)
	Teacher explains in the Mother Tongue/Home Language of learners or in the LOLT				
	Teacher explains in Afrikaans				
	Choral repetition				
	Group work				
	Vocabulary lists				
	Self or peer evaluation				
	Doing corrections				
	Debates or other opportunities for learners to express own opinion				
B	ACTIVITIES	Never (1)	Sometimes (2)	Regularly (3)	All the time (4)
	Activities that integrate most of the outcomes for additional language teaching				
	Computer-based activities				
	Worksheets				
	Translation				
	Language games				
	Creative writing				
	Activities involving actions				
	Activities enhanced by the use of music, rhyme or rhythm				
	Oral presentations with teaching aids				
	Prepared orals				
	Role play				
	Opportunities for learners to express own opinion or think critically				
C	MATERIALS	Never (1)	Sometimes (2)	Regularly (3)	All the time (4)
	Media texts, e.g. articles from newspapers or magazines				
	Cross-curriculum texts				
	Textbooks				
	Teacher's own original texts				
	Visual or auditory texts				

55. Please specify any method/activity/material not mentioned above that you use regularly.

56. Which of the following options describes best what your learners do most of the time in the Afrikaans FAL class?

(Mark one box with an X)

They communicate with each other in order to complete a joint activity (e.g. in pairs or groups) (1)	
They work quietly on their own exercises in their books (2)	
They participate in classroom discussions (3)	
They draw and colour pictures (4)	
Other (5)	

If *Other*, please specify: _____

57. Which language learning activity/task/event do your learners **enjoy** most in the additional language class?

58. When planning the teaching and learning for the additional language class, how useful do you find each of the following sources?

(Mark one box per row with an X)

	Not useful (1)	Some aspects are useful (2)	Useful (3)	Very useful (4)
Teachers' guides accompanying a textbook				
NCS document				
WCED materials, e.g. exemplars, Foundations for Learning, Blue Box				
Learners' text books				
Grade planning schedules				
Assessment criteria (NCS) and materials, e.g. old test papers				
Own materials sourced from library				
Common errors identified from learners' assessment				
Media, e.g. newspapers, magazines, etc.				
Learners' text books for other subjects				
Other				

If *Other*, please specify: _____

59. Thinking of your term planning, how do you organize the content?

(Mark the appropriate box/es with an X)

Language functions, e.g. to greet, to identify (1)	
Language notions, e.g. time/ place (2)	
Outcomes according to NCS (3)	
Assessment Standards according to NCS (4)	
Topics, e.g. "My body" (5)	
Situations, e.g. "In the classroom" (6)	
Grammar structures, e.g. plurals, tenses (7)	
Language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) (8)	
Language tasks (9)	
Other (10)	

If *Other*, please specify: _____

Section 9: Availability and use of learner support material

60. If you use a textbook when planning or teaching Afrikaans FAL, what textbook/s do you **mainly** use for the grade/s you teach?

Please give details below.

Grade	Title/series	Publisher
Does each learner in the class have his/her own copy of the textbook?		Yes (1) No (2)
Are the textbooks used generally appropriate for your classes?		Yes (1) No (2)

61. If textbooks are **not** mainly used, what print material do you **mainly** use instead of textbooks?

(Mark relevant boxes with X)

Published work cards/worksheets (1)	Pre-printed workbooks (2)	Own worksheets (3)
Photocopies from different textbooks (4)	Other (5)	None(6)

If *Other*, please specify: _____

62. Do you ever use electronic or audio-visual materials for teaching FAL? Yes (1) / No (2)

If Yes, please provide the details below.

Title	Publisher	Description

63. Do you experience a shortage of any of the following teaching resources for the FAL?

(Mark each row with **one X**)

Textbooks	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Magazines	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Newspapers	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Audio-visual material	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Readers	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Fiction, story/picture books	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Dictionaries	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)
Non-fiction/information books	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't have a need for these resources (3)

64. Do you have any other comments that you wish to make regarding teaching Afrikaans as an Additional Language?

Thank you. I value your input.

Appendix G: Copy of questionnaire (Afrikaans)

KAAPSE SKIEREILAND UNIVERSITEIT VIR TEGNOLOGIE

Onderwyservraelys:

Afrikaans as 'n Eerste Addisionele Taal (EAT)

Hierdie vraelys ondersoek sekere kwessies wat verband hou met die onderrig van Afrikaans as 'n Eerste Addisionele Taal (EAT) in stedelike WKOD-skole, om sodoende areas te identifiseer wat moontlik sal baat by bykomende aandag en ondersteuning. Die doel van die navorsing is om aanbevelings rakende Addisionele Taal-kwessies soos die kurrikulum, metodologie, personeel en onderwys hulpmiddels aan die Fakulteit Opvoedkunde en Sosiale Studies aan CPUT te maak.

Ek sal dit werklik hoog op prys stel as jy jou gedagtes en inligting met my sal deel.

Ek sal nie vir jou naam vra nie en jou skool se identiteit sal nie aan ander partye bekend gemaak word nie.

Afdeling 1: Profiel van skool

1. Naam van skool: _____

2. Skool se Onderwysdistrik
(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Metro Noord (1)	Metro Suid (2)	Metro Oos (3)	Metro Wes (4)
-----------------	----------------	---------------	---------------

3. Amptelike taal/tale van leer en onderrig (TVLO / "LOLT") by die skool
(Merk al die toepaslike opsies met 'n X)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	Engels (3)	Ander (4)
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Indien Ander, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

4. Die skool is

parallelmedium (d.w.s. Afrikaans en Engels in verskillende klasse)	Ja (1)	Nee (2)
dubbelmedium (d.w.s. Afrikaans en Engels in dieselfde klas)	Ja (1)	Nee (2)
eentalig (bv. slegs Engels word as TVLO / "LOLT" gebruik)	Ja (1)	Nee (2)

Afdeling 2: Leerderprofiel en -vaardigheid

Wat is die huistaal/moedertaal van die **meeste** van die leerders in die skool?

(Merk slegs een opsie met 'n X)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	Engels (3)	Ander inheemse Suid-Afrikaanse taal (4)	Ander nie-Suid-Afrikaanse taal (5)
Daar is twee meerderheids-taalgroepe (6)		Die meeste leerders gebruik meer as een taal ewe veel tuis (7)		Daar is geen meerderheids-taalgroep (gemengde groep) (8)

Indien 6 of 7, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

6. Hoe gereeld hoor of gebruik leerders in die skool Afrikaans buite die Afrikaans-klaskamer?

(Merk die relevante opsie met 'n X)

In ander klasse by die skool	Die heeltid of die meeste van die tyd (1)	Soms (2)	Selde of nooit (3)	Weet nie (4)
Tuis of in hul gemeenskap	Die heeltid of die meeste van die tyd (1)	Soms (2)	Selde of nooit (3)	Weet nie (4)

7. Altesaam hoeveel van die kinders in jou Afrikaans EAT klasse presteer op die vlak soos aangedui deur die NKV vir hulle graad?

Merk asseblief ten opsigte van elk van die volgende areas (een X per ry):

Luisterbegrip	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)
Hardop lees	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)
Praat	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)
Lees met begrip	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)
Skryf	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)
Grammatikale korrektheid	Almal (1)	Meeste/driekwart (2)	Ten minste die helfte (3)	Ten minste 'n kwart (4)	Minder as 'n kwart (5)

8. Indien jy enige van die opsies by Vraag 7 met 4 of 5 gemerk het, wat beskou jy as die belangrikste rede vir hulle gebrek aan prestasie?

(Merk slegs een opsie met 'n X)

Die Assesseringstandaarde is te hoog. (1)	
Die toegekende tyd per week is te min. (2)	
Leerders word te min aan die taal blootgestel. (3)	
Die onderwyser se vaardighede skiet tekort. (4)	
Die leerders het 'n negatiewe houding. (5)	

Afdeling 3: Onderwysersprofiel

9. Watter taal/tale praat jy meestal by die huis?

(Merk slegs een opsie met 'n X)

isiXhosa (1)	Afrikaans (2)	Engels (3)	Ander (4)	Ek gebruik twee of meer tale ewe veel by die huis. (5)
--------------	---------------	------------	-----------	--

Indien 4 of 5, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

10. In watter graad/grade onderrig jy Afrikaans as EAT in 2011?

(Merk toepaslike opsie/s met 'n X)

R	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	

11. In watter graad/grade onderrig jy Afrikaans as TAT in 2011?

(Merk toepaslike opsie/s met 'n X)

R	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	8	9	10	11	12	

12. Wat gebruik jy as die medium van onderrig in jou Afrikaans EAT klasse?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Slegs Afrikaans (1)	Meestal Afrikaans, en 'n bietjie Engels (2)	Min of meer ewe veel Afrikaans en Engels (3)	Meestal Engels, met min Afrikaans (4)
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Vir vrae 13 tot 16, merk een opsie per vraag met 'n X.

13. Hoeveel jaar (vanjaar ingesluit) is jy al in die onderwys?

0-1 jaar (1)	2-5 jaar (2)	6-10 jaar (3)	11 jare of langer (4)
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14. Hoeveel jaar (vanjaar ingesluit) hou jy al skool by jou huidige skool?

0-1 jaar (1)	2-5 jaar (2)	6-10 jaar (3)	11 jare of langer (4)
--------------	--------------	---------------	-----------------------

15. Hoeveel jaar (vanjaar ingesluit) is jy al 'n Afrikaans EAT-onderwyser?

0-1 jaar (1)	2-5 jaar (2)	6-10 jaar (3)	11 jare of langer (4)
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16. Hoeveel jaar (vanjaar ingesluit) is jy al 'n Afrikaans TAT-onderwyser?

0-1 jaar (1)	2-5 jaar (2)	6-10 jaar (3)	11 jare of langer (4)
--------------	--------------	---------------	-----------------------

17. a. Noem asseblief hieronder al die naskoolse kwalifikasies wat jy verwerf het.

- b. In watter jaar het jy jou hoogste kwalifikasie verwerf?

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18. Wat is die hoogste vlak waarop jy Afrikaans tydens jou naskoolse studies geneem het (bv. op tweedejaarsvlak)?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Geen Afrikaans in na-skoolse kwalifikasie (1)	Kursus/se korter as 'n volle jaar (bv. module-/semester-kursusse (2)	1 jaar (3)	2 jaar (4)	3 jaar (5)	4 jaar (6)	4+ jare (7)
---	--	------------	------------	------------	------------	-------------

19. a. Dui aan wat jou hoogste kwalifikasie is in Addisionele Taal **onderrig** (taalmetodiek).

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Diploma (1)	Voorgraads (2)
Graad (as 'n hoofvak) (3)	Honneurs (4)
Meestersgraad (5)	Ander (6)

Indien Ander, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

- b. In watter jaar het jy hierdie kwalifikasie verwerf?

--	--	--	--	--

20. Hoe goed, volgens jou, het jou opleiding jou voorberei om Afrikaans EAT te onderrig?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Baie goed (1)	Voldoende (2)	Swak (3)	Glad nie (4)
---------------	---------------	----------	--------------

Vrae 21 - 26 handel oor enige indiensopleiding vir Afrikaans EAT wat jy moontlik al ontvang het.

21. Het jy al ooit enige **indiensopleiding** (kort kursusse) bygewoon wat spesifiek gerig was op die **Nasionale Kurrikulumstelling (NKV) vir Afrikaans EAT?**

Ja (1)	Nee (2)
Indien Ja, antwoord asseblief vrae 21 tot 26 t.o.v. al die Afrikaans EAT kort kursusse wat jy bygewoon het.	Indien Nee, gaan na vraag 27.

22. Wat was die fokus van die opleiding?

(Merk toepaslike opsie/s met 'n X)

Assesserings-praktyk (1)	Verduideliking van beleids-dokumente (2)	Kurrikulum-beplanning en -dekking (3)	Onderrig-metodes (4)	Leiding in gebruik van klaskamer-materiaal/handboeke (5)
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23. Wie het die opleiding verskaf?

(Merk die toepaslike opsie/s met 'n X)

WKOD-amptenare (1)	Lede van skool se bestuurspan (2)	NRO of ander indiensopleidings-verskaffer (3)	Universiteit (4)	Ander (5)
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24. Ongeveer hoeveel dae was die opleiding in totaal (alle kursusse saam opgetel)? _____ dae

25. In watter jaar/jare het die opleiding in 21 genoem, plaasgevind?

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26. Was dit vir jou moontlik om die opleiding in 21 genoem te implementeer? Ja(1) / Nee(2)

Indien *Nee*, verduidelik asseblief waarom dit nie moontlik was nie. _____

27. Aan watter ondersteuning of opleiding in Afrikaans EAT bestaan daar volgens jou nog die grootste behoefte? _____

28. Verskaf die Departement enige indiensopleiding of inligting oor **nuwe ontwikkelings in Addisionele Taal-metodologie?** Ja(1) / Nee(2)

Indien *Ja*, spesifiseer asseblief van watter opleidingsgeleenthede of inligting jy weet.

29. Dui aan wat jou vaardigheid in Afrikaans is ten opsigte van elk van die volgende:
(*Merk elke ry met een X*)

Luisterbegrip	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)
Hardop lees	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)
Praat	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)
Leesbegrip	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)
Skryf	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)
Grammatikale korrektheid	Swak (1)	Gemiddeld (2)	Goed (3)	Uitstekend (4)

30. Dui aan hoeveel jy dit geniet om Afrikaans as 'n Addisionele Taal te onderrig.
(*Merk een opsie met 'n X*)

Geniet dit altyd (1)	Geniet dit gewoonlik (2)	Geniet dit soms (3)	Geniet dit selde (4)	Geniet dit nooit (5)
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31. Wat is die hoofrede vir die antwoord wat jy gegee het in nommer 30?

Afdeling 4: Nasionale en plaaslike taalbeleidskwessies

32. Hoe bekend is jy met die amptelike taalbeleid van die volgende instansies?
(*Merk een opsie met 'n X*)

Die Departement van Basiese Onderwys	Baie bekend daarmee (1)	Redelik bekend daarmee (2)	Glad nie bekend daarmee nie (3)
Die WKOD	Baie bekend daarmee (1)	Redelik bekend daarmee (2)	Glad nie bekend daarmee nie (3)

33. Hoe beïnvloed hierdie beleidstukke jou klaskamerpraktyk?

34. Dit is tans vir alle leerders verpligtend om ten minste een addisionele taal op skool te neem. Tot watter mate stem jy met hierdie beleid saam?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Stem heeltemal saam (1)	Stem saam (2)	Onseker (3)	Stem nie saam nie (4)	Stem glad nie saam nie (5)
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35. Watter van die volgende stellings weerspieël jou siening die beste?

(Merk een of meer opsies met 'n X)

Engels is 'n internasionale taal en moet dus die enigste taal wees wat in Suid-Afrikaanse skole onderrig word. (1)	
Suid-Afrika is 'n veeltalige en multikulturele land en daarom moet <i>al</i> .mal ten minste een inheemse taal ken. (2)	
Die kurrikulum is reeds oorvol en dit behoort nie vir leerders nodig te wees om meer as een taal te leer nie. (3)	
Om 'n ander taal aan te leer dra tot kognitiewe ontwikkeling by; daarom is dit goed dat leerders meer as een taal móét leer. (4)	
In 'n veeltalige werksomgewing is kennis van ander tale noodsaaklik vir effektiewe kommunikasie. (5)	

Afdeling 5: Skool se taalbeleid

36. Het jou skool 'n taalbeleid?

Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Weet nie (3)
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Indien Ja, antwoord asseblief vrae 36 en 37.

37. Is die skool se taalbeleid in lyn met die WKOD se Taaltransformasieplan?

Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Weet nie (3)
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38. Word die implementering van die taalbeleid deur die skool se bestuurspan gemonitor?

Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Weet nie (3)
--------	---------	--------------

39. Hoe ondersteun jou skool se taalbeleid die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT ?

40. Hoeveel deelname of invloed het die skool se **onderwysers** gehad in die formulering van die skool se huidige taalbeleid?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Heelwat (1)	'n Bietjie (2)	Geen (3)	Weet nie (4)
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41. Hoeveel deelname of invloed het die **ouers van leerders** gehad in besluite rondom die skool se huidige taalbeleid?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Heelwat (1)	'n Bietjie (2)	Geen (3)	Weet nie (4)
-------------	----------------	----------	--------------

42. *Beantwoord hierdie vraag slegs indien jou skool 'n laerskool is.*

In watter graad kry leerders vir die eerste keer informele blootstelling aan Afrikaans EAT en begin hulle dit mondelings gebruik?	
In watter graad word met formele onderrig, wat lees en skryf insluit, in Afrikaans EAT begin?	

Afdeling 6: Indeling van onderrigtyd

43. Hoeveel uur klastyd is op die rooster ingedeel vir Afrikaans EAT in die fase/s wat jy onderrig?

	ure/week (Skryf die getal)
Intermediêre Fase	_____ ure
Senior Fase	_____ ure

44. Hoeveel ure **méer tyd** per week, indien enige, dink jy is nodig vir Afrikaans EAT in die fases wat jy onderrig?

(Merk een opsie per ry met 'n X in die fases wat op jou van toepassing is.)

Intermediêre Fase	Geen (0)	1 uur meer (1)	1-2 uur (2)	2-3 uur (3)	meer as 3 ure (4)
Senior Fase	Geen (0)	1 uur meer (1)	1-2 uur (2)	2-3 uur (3)	meer as 3 ure (4)

45. Indien jy dink meer tyd is nodig, waarvoor sou jy die bykomende tyd gebruik?

Afdeling 7: Kurrikulumbeplanning en -lewering

46. Van watter amptelike dokument (bv. die NKV) maak jy **hoofsaaklik** gebruik wanneer jy jou onderrigprogram vir Afrikaans EAT elke jaar beplan?

(Merk die toepaslike opsie met X)

NKV (1)	WKOD Werkskodes: Blou Boks (2)
Grondslag vir Leer/Foundations for Learning (3)	Ander (4)

Indien Ander, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

47. Hoe bekend is jy met die NKV se vereistes t.o.v. Afrikaans EAT-onderrig?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Baie bekend – ken die inhoud baie goed (1)	Redelik bekend met die inhoud (2)	Glad nie bekend met die inhoud nie (3)
--	-----------------------------------	--

48. Tot watter mate implementeer jy die **Leeruitkomste** van die NKV in jou lesbeplanning en -aanbieding?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Implementeer dit altyd (1)	Implementeer dit meestal (2)	Probeer dit implementeer maar sukkel (3)	Implementeer dit soms (4)	Implementeer dit nooit (5)
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49. Tot watter mate implementeer jy die **Assesseringstandaarde** van die NKV in jou lesbeplanning en -aanbieding?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Implementeer dit altyd (1)	Implementeer dit meestal (2)	Probeer dit implementeer maar sukkel (3)	Implementeer dit soms (4)	Implementeer dit nooit (5)
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50. Hoeveel invloed het jy oor die keuse van die **inhoud** van die lesmateriaal in jou Afrikaans EAT-klaskamer?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Heelwat (1)	'n Bietjie (2)	Geen (3)	Weet nie (4)
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Afdeling 8: Onderrigmetodiek

51. Hoeveel vryheid het jy as individu om self te besluit oor die **onderrigmetodiek** wat jy gebruik in jou Afrikaans EAT-klaskamer?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Heelwat (1)	'n Bietjie (2)	Geen (3)
-------------	----------------	----------

52. Hoe belangrik dink jy is elk van die volgende aspekte vir effektiewe leer en onderrig in die addisionele taalklaskamer?

(Merk een opsie per ry met 'n X)

	Nie belangrik (1)	Belangrik (2)	Baie belangrik (3)
Luister met begrip			
Vlot praat			
Lees en kyk			
Akkuraat skryf			
Grammatika			
Motivering en houding van leerders			
Motivering en houding van onderwyser			
Die kombinasie van begrip-, praat-, lees- en skryfvaardighede			
Geskikte hulpmiddels			
Geskikte handboeke			
Genoeg tyd			
Dink en redeneer			
Ander			

Indien *Ander*, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

53. Wat beskou jy as die drie belangrikste faktore wat **negatief** inwerk op jou leerders se vordering in Afrikaans EAT ?

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

54. Dui asseblief aan hoe dikwels jy elk van die volgende metodes, aktiwiteite en soorte teksmateriaal in jou klaskamer gebruik in die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT.

(Merk een opsie per ry met 'n X)

METODE	Nooit (1)	Soms (2)	Gereeld (3)	Baie gereeld (4)
Verduidelik werk in die moedertaal/huistaal van leerders of in die TVLO / "LOLT"				
Verduidelik werk in Afrikaans				
Klas herhaal in "koor"				
Groepwerk				
Lyste woordeskat				
Self- of portuurevaluering				
Doen van verbeteringe				
Debate of ander geleenthede vir leerders om eie opinie te lug				
AKTIWITEITE	Nooit (1)	Soms (2)	Gereeld (3)	Baie gereeld (4)
Aktiwiteite wat die meeste van die uitkomst vir EAT-onderrig integreer				
Rekenaargebaseerde aktiwiteite				
Werkvelle				
Vertaling				
Taalspeletjies				
Kreatiewe skryfwerk				
Aktiwiteite met bewegings				
Aktiwiteite wat musiek, rym of ritme gebruik				
Mondelinge aanbieding met onderrighulpmiddels				
Vorbereide mondelinge				
Rolspel				
Geleenthede vir leerders om eie opinie te lug of krities te dink				
TEKSMATERIAAL	Nooit (1)	Soms (2)	Gereeld (3)	Baie gereeld (4)
Mediatekste, bv. artikels uit koerante of tydskrifte				
Kruis-kurrikulêre tekste				
Handboeke				
Onderwyser se eie oorspronklike teks				
Visuele teks of klankmateriaal				

55. Spesifiseer asseblief enige ander metode, aktiwiteit of materiaal nie hierbo genoem nie wat jy gereeld gebruik.

56. Watter een van die volgende opsies beskryf die beste wat jou leerders die meeste van die tyd in die Afrikaans EAT-klas doen?

(Merk een opsie met 'n X)

Hulle kommunikeer met mekaar om 'n gesamentlike aktiwiteit te voltooi (bv. in pare of groepe)	
Hulle werk stil op hul eie aan oefeninge in hul oefeningboeke	
Hulle neem deel aan klaskamerbesprekings	
Hulle teken prente en kleur in	
Ander	

Indien *Ander*, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

57. Watter leeraktiwiteit, taak of gebeurtenis in die EAT-klaskamer **geniet** jou leerders die meeste?

58. Wanneer jy onderrig en leer vir die Afrikaans EAT-klas beplan, hoe nuttig of bruikbaar is elk van die volgende bronne vir jou?

(Merk een opsie per ry met 'n X)

	Nie nuttig nie (1)	Sommige nuttige aspekte (2)	Nuttig (3)	Baie nuttig (4)
Die onderwysergids wat saam met 'n handboek kom (1)				
NKV-dokument (2)				
WKOD-materiaal, bv. voorbeeld-materiaal, Grondslag v leer/ Foundations for Learning, Blou Boks (3)				
Leerders se handboeke (4)				
Beplanningskodes vir graad (5)				
Assesseringskriteria (NKV) en materiaal soos ou vraestelle (6)				
Eie materiaal uit die biblioteek (7)				
Algemene foute wat uit leerders se werk geïdentifiseer word (8)				
Media, bv. koerante, tydskrifte (9)				
Leerders se handboeke vir ander vakke (10)				
Ander (11)				

Indien *Ander*, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

59. Wanneer jy die kwartaal se werk beplan, hoe organiseer jy die inhoud?
(Merk die toepaslike opsie/s met 'n X)

Taalfunksies, bv. om te groet, te identifiseer	
Taalbegrippe, bv. tyd of plek	
Uitkomst van die NKV	
Assesseringsstandaarde van die NKV	
Onderwerpe, bv. "My liggaam"	
Situasies, bv. "In die klaskamer"	
Grammatikale strukture, bv. meervoude, verkleinwoorde	
Taalvaardighede (luister, praat, lees, skryf)	
Taaltake	
Ander	

Indien *Ander*, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

Afdeling 9: Besikbaarheid en aanwending van leerderondersteuningsmateriaal

60. Indien jy **hoofsaaklik** 'n handboek gebruik wanneer jy Afrikaans EAT voorberei of onderrig, watter handboek/e gebruik jy vir die graad/grade wat jy onderrig?
Verskaf asseblief besonderhede hieronder.

Graad	Titel/reeks	Uitgewer
Het elke leerder sy/haar eie kopie van die handboek?		Ja (1) Nee (2)
Is die handboeke oor die algemeen geskik vir jou klasse?		Ja (1) Nee (2)

61. Indien jy **níe** hoofsaaklik handboeke gebruik nie, watter gedrukte materiaal gebruik jy **hoofsaaklik** in die plek van handboeke?
(Merk toepaslike opsies met 'n X)

Gepubliseerde werkkaarte/werkvulle (1)	Vooraf gedrukte werkboeke (2)	Eie werkvulle (3)
Fotokopieë van verskillende werkboeke (4)	Ander (5)	Geen(6)

Indien *Ander*, spesifiseer asseblief: _____

62. Gebruik jy ooit elektroniese of oudio-visuele materiaal in die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT?

Ja (1) / Nee (2)

Indien *Ja*, verskaf asseblief die besonderhede hieronder.

Titel	Uitgewer	Beskrywing

63. Ervaar jy 'n tekort aan enige van die volgende onderrighulpmiddels in jou Afrikaans EAT klas?

(Merk elke ry met een X)

Handboeke	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Tydskrifte	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Koerante	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Oudio-visuele materiaal	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Leesboeke	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Fiksie/storieboeke/prenteboeke	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Woordeboeke	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)
Nie-fiksie/inligtingsboeke	Ja (1)	Nee (2)	Het nie behoefte hieraan nie (3)

64. Het jy enige ander opmerkings in verband met die onderrig van Afrikaans as 'n Addisionele Taal?

Baie dankie. Ek waardeer jou bydrae opreg.

Appendix H: Copy of interview schedule (English)

**SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR INTERVIEWS WITH
GRADE 4-6 TEACHERS OF AFRIKAANS FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE IN
URBAN WESTERN CAPE SCHOOLS**

In my letter requesting this interview I have indicated to you that I am busy with a research project on the teaching of Afrikaans First Additional Language in grades 4 – 6 in urban Western Cape schools. I would like to reiterate that the aim of this interview is to obtain your ideas and opinions regarding First Additional Language teaching and to verify the data that have been gathered through the questionnaire that you had completed. The information obtained will be used only for research purposes and no names of participants, schools or any identifying data regarding the school will be made known in the report. Do you have any questions before we start the interview?

May I audio-record the interview, as it would help me to listen to it again later and to make a transcript of the interview for data analysis purposes?

1. What formal training do you have in the methodology of first additional/second language teaching?
2. What form of in-service training does the WCED provide with regard to the teaching of Afrikaans FAL?
3. How would you describe your proficiency in Afrikaans?
4. What is your rationale for/opinion of teaching Afrikaans as a FAL?
5. To what extent do you/your school implement the national and provincial language policies with regard to the teaching of FAL?
6. Describe how you use the NCS for Afrikaans FAL to inform and guide your teaching of Afrikaans.
7. To what extent do your learners achieve the outcomes of the NCS?
8. What do you think are the reasons for your answer to question 7?
9. Describe the methodology/approach that you use when teaching FAL.
10. How much time is per week is allocated to Afrikaans FAL?

11. What is your weekly programme for Afrikaans FAL teaching?
12. What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy most and why?
13. What aspect of teaching Afrikaans do you enjoy least and why?
14. What texts and other teaching materials do you use when teaching Afrikaans as FAL?
15. Describe the major challenges you experience when teaching Afrikaans as FAL?
16. What assistance and support would help you to improve your teaching of Afrikaans FAL?

Appendix I: Copy of interview schedule (Afrikaans)

SEMI-GESTRUKTUREERDE ONDERHOUDSVRAE VIR ONDERHOUE MET GRAAD 4-6 ONDERWYSERS VAN AFRIKAANS EERSTE ADDISIONELE TAAL IN STEDELIKE WES-KAAPSE SKOLE

In my brief waarin hierdie onderhoud aangevra is, is daar verduidelik dat ek besig is met 'n navorsingsprojek oor Afrikaans Eerste Addisionele Taal in grade 4-6 in stedelike Wes-Kaapse skole. Ek wil dit graag beklemtoon dat die doel van hierdie onderhoud is om u idees en menings ten opsigte van Eerste Addisionele Taalonderrig te kry en om die data wat met die vraelyste ingesamel is, te verifieer of bevestig. Die inligting wat deur die onderhoud bekom sal word, sal slegs vir navorsingsdoeleindes gebruik word en geen name van respondente, skole of enige ander inligting wat kan bydra tot die identifisering van die skool sal in die navorsingsverslag bekend gemaak word nie. Het u enige ander vrae voordat ons met die onderhoud begin?

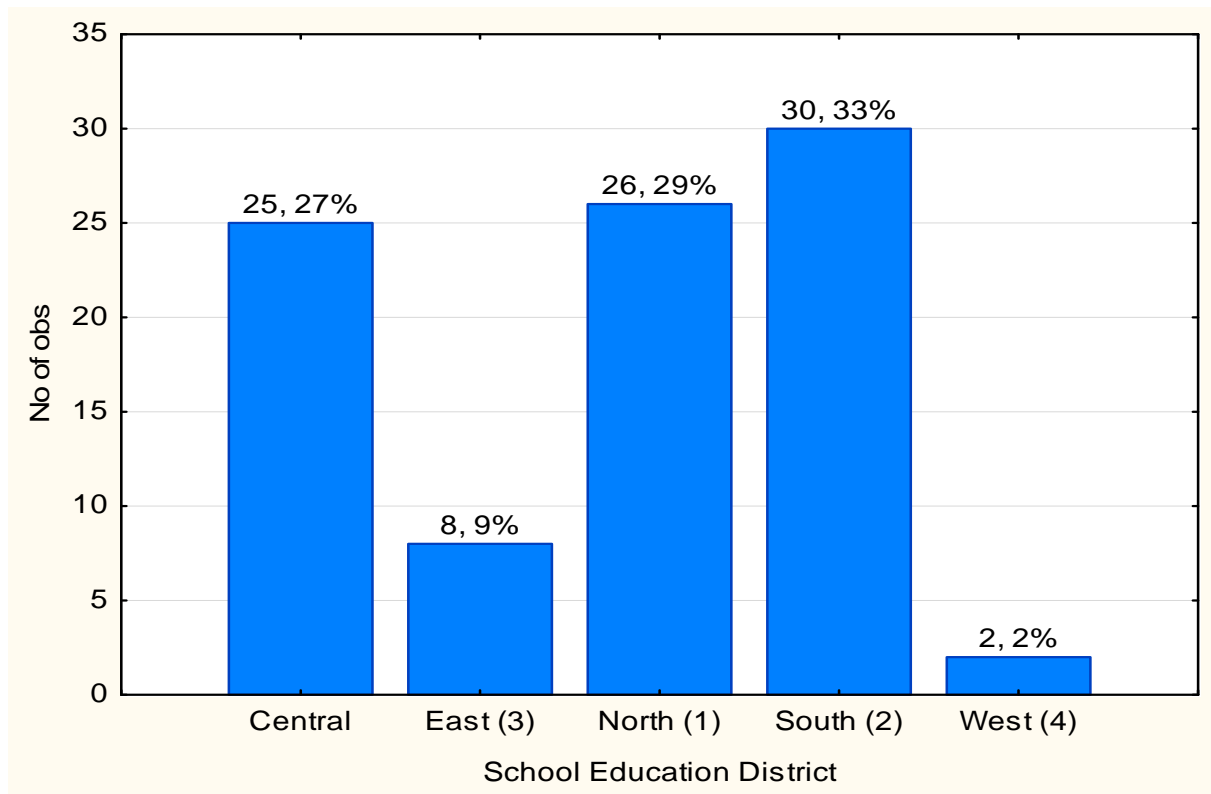
Het ek u toestemming om die onderhoud digitaal op te neem? Dit sal my help om later weer daarna te luister en bydra tot die transkribering van die onderhoud met die oog op die analisering van die data.

1. Watter formele opleiding het jy in die metodiek/didaktiek van eerste addisionele taalonderrig (EAT)?
2. Beskryf die aard van indiensopleiding wat die WKOD aan onderwysers bied ten opsigte van die onderrig van Afrikaans as EAT.
3. Hoe sal jy jou vaardigheid in Afrikaans beskryf?
4. Wat is jou mening omtrent die onderrig van Afrikaans as EAT?
5. Tot watter mate implimenteer jy/jou skool die nasionale en provinsiale beleid rakende die onderrig van EAT?
6. Verduidelik hoe jy die NKV vir Afrikaans EAT gebruik om jou onderrig van Afrikaans EAT te lei.
7. Tot watter mate bereik jou leerders die uitkomst van die NKV?
8. Wat dink jy is die rede(s) vir jou antwoord op die vorige vraag?
9. Beskryf die benadering/metodiek wat jy gebruik wanneer jy Afrikaans EAT onderrig?
10. Hoeveel tyd per week word aan die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT afgestaan?
11. Hoe lyk jou weeklikse program vir die onderrig van Afrikaans EAT?
12. Watter aspek van Afrikaans geniet jy die meeste om te onderrig en hoekom?
13. Watter aspek van Afrikaans geniet jy die minste om te onderrig en hoekom?

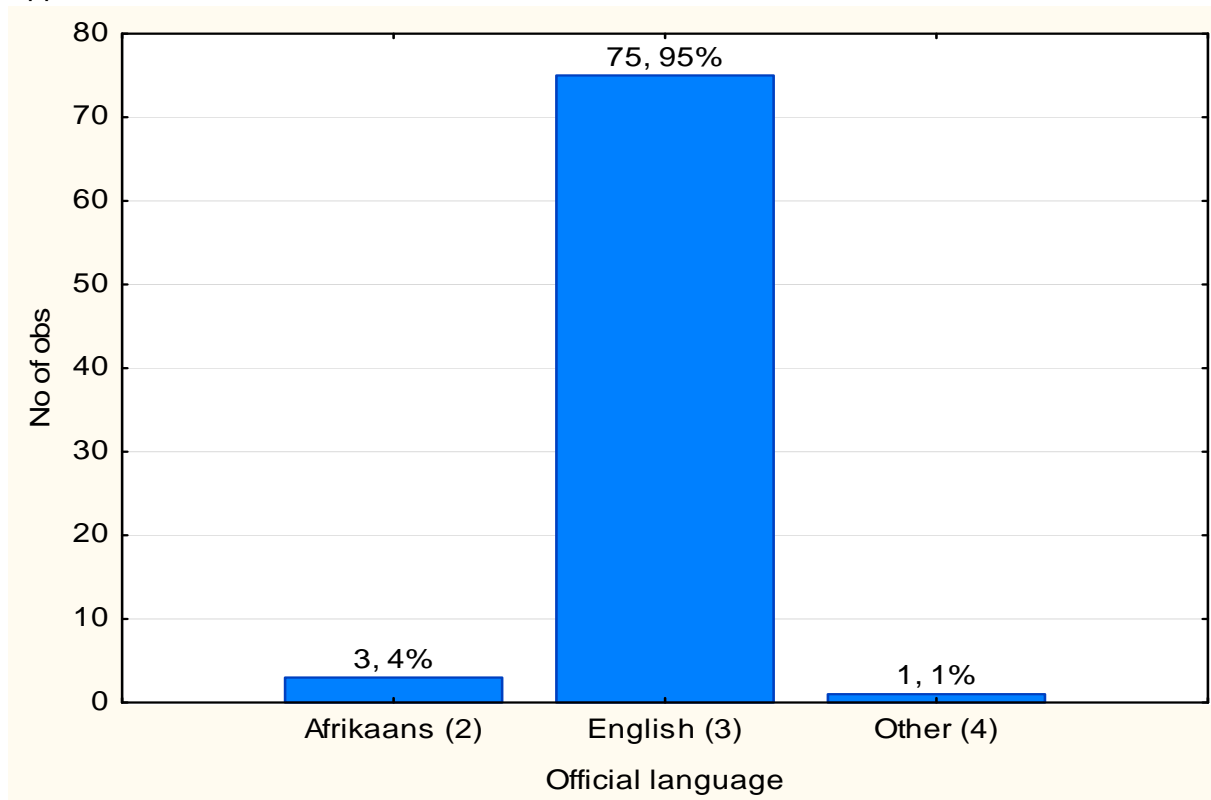
14. Watter tekste en ander onderrigmateriaal gebruik jy wanneer jy Afrikaans EAT onderrig?
15. Beskryf die grootste uitdagings wat jy ondervind met die onderrig van Afrikaans as EAT.
16. Watter hulp en ondersteuning sal jou help om jou aanbieding van Afrikaans EAT te verbeter?

Appendix J: Figures of descriptive data

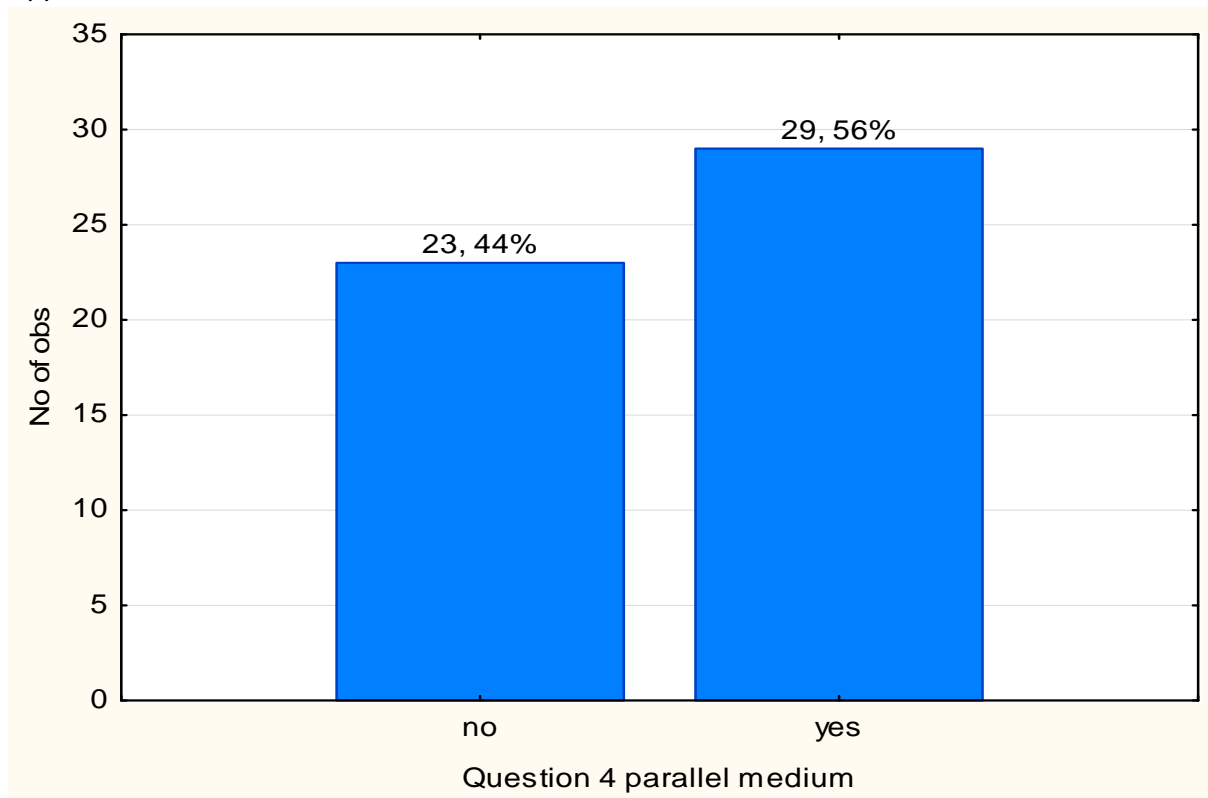
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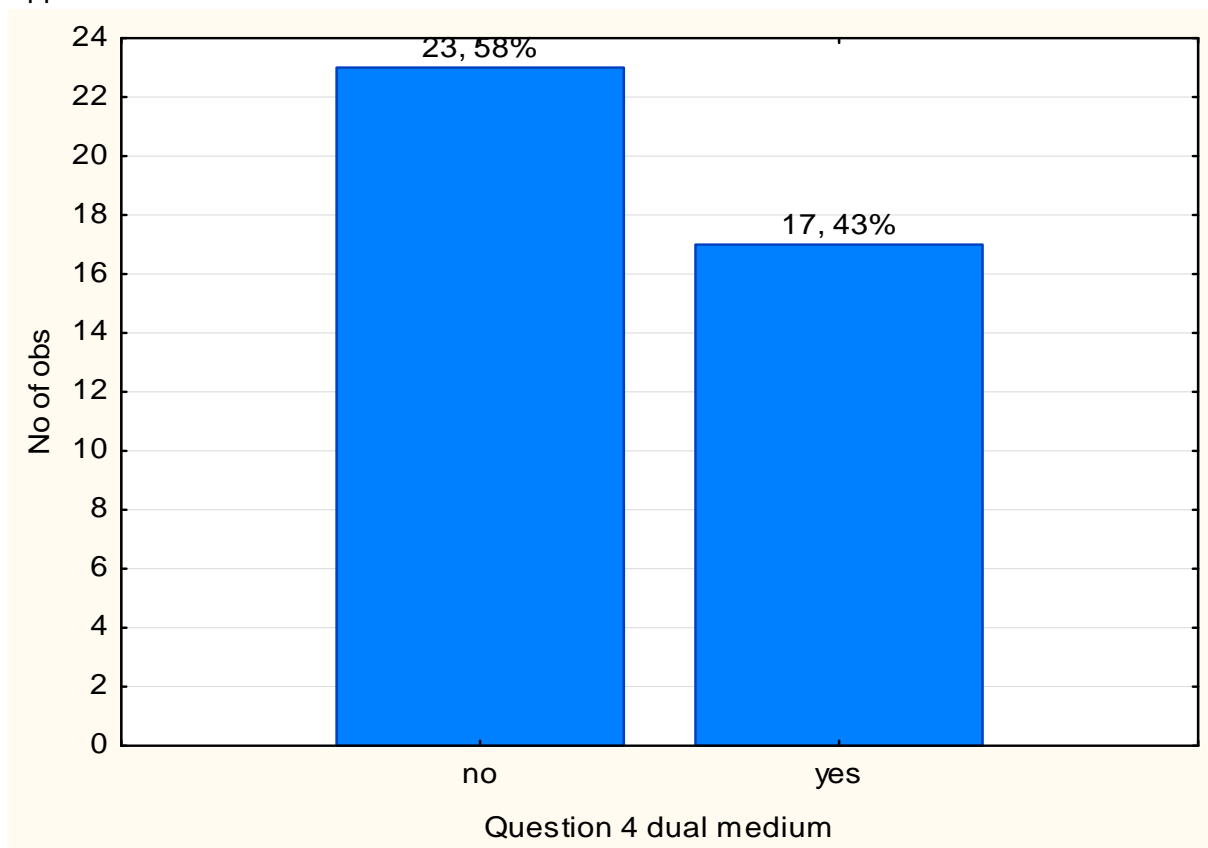
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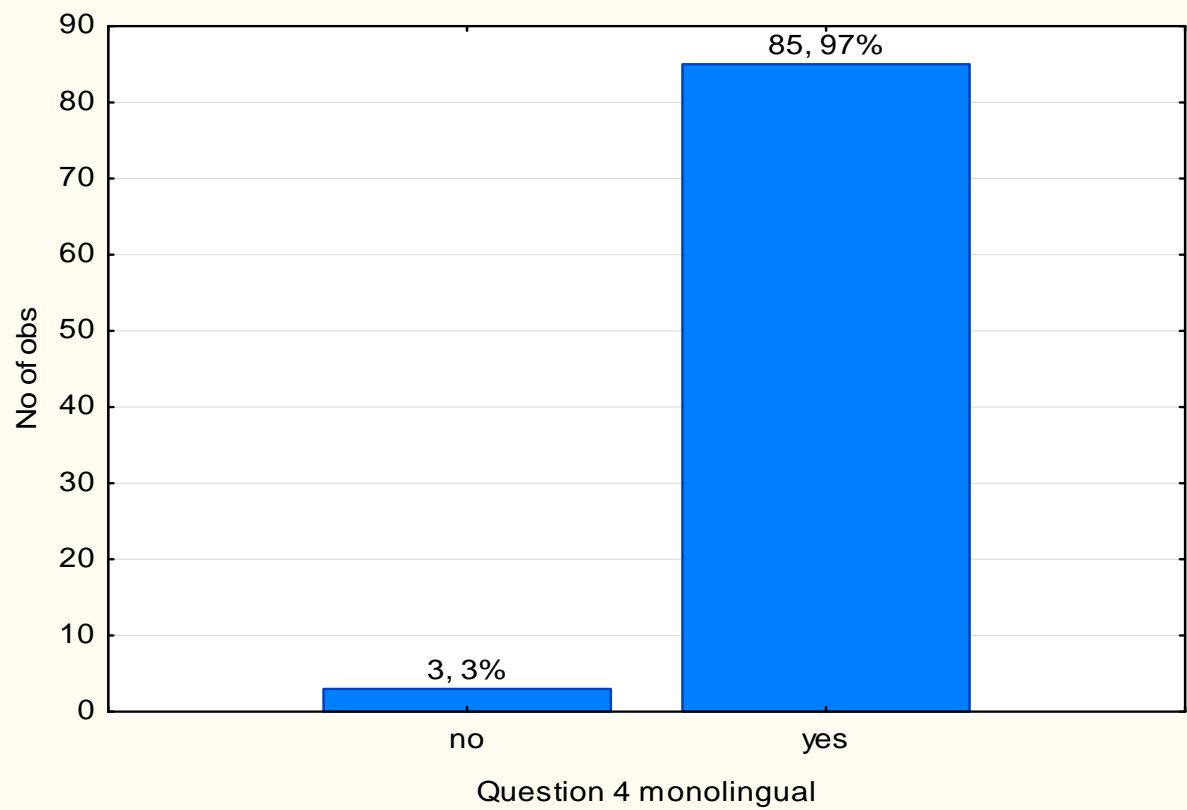
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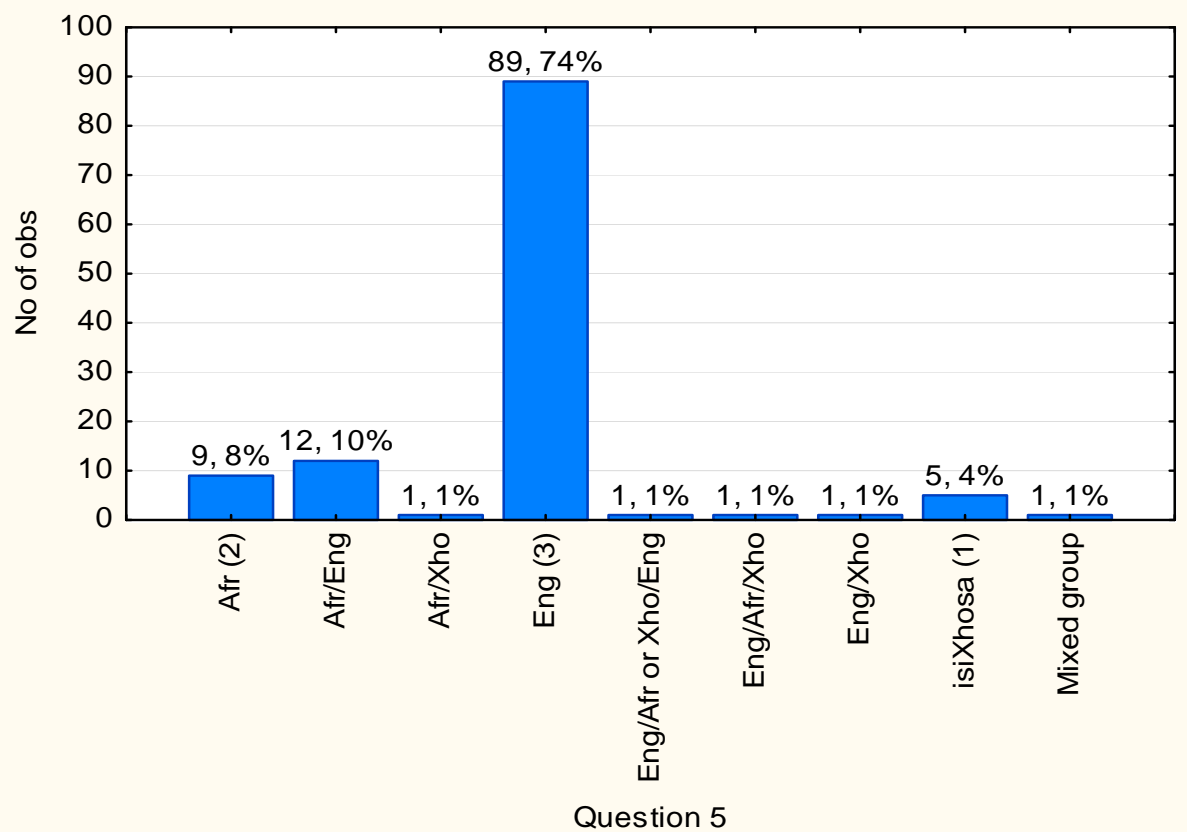
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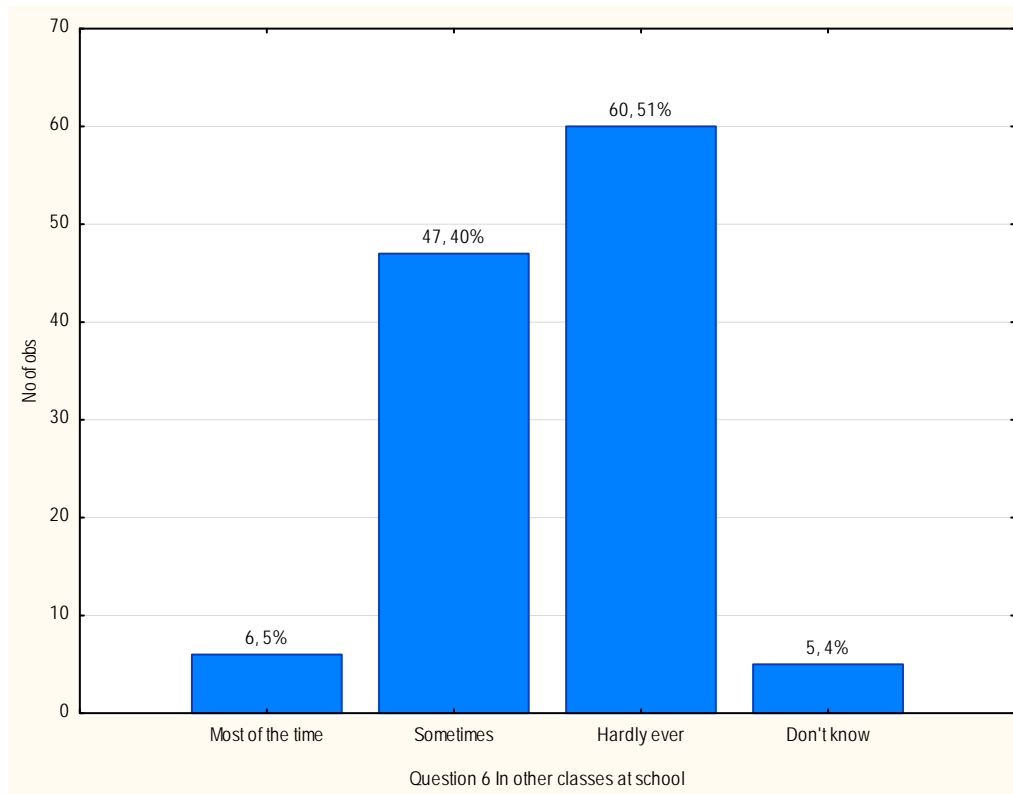
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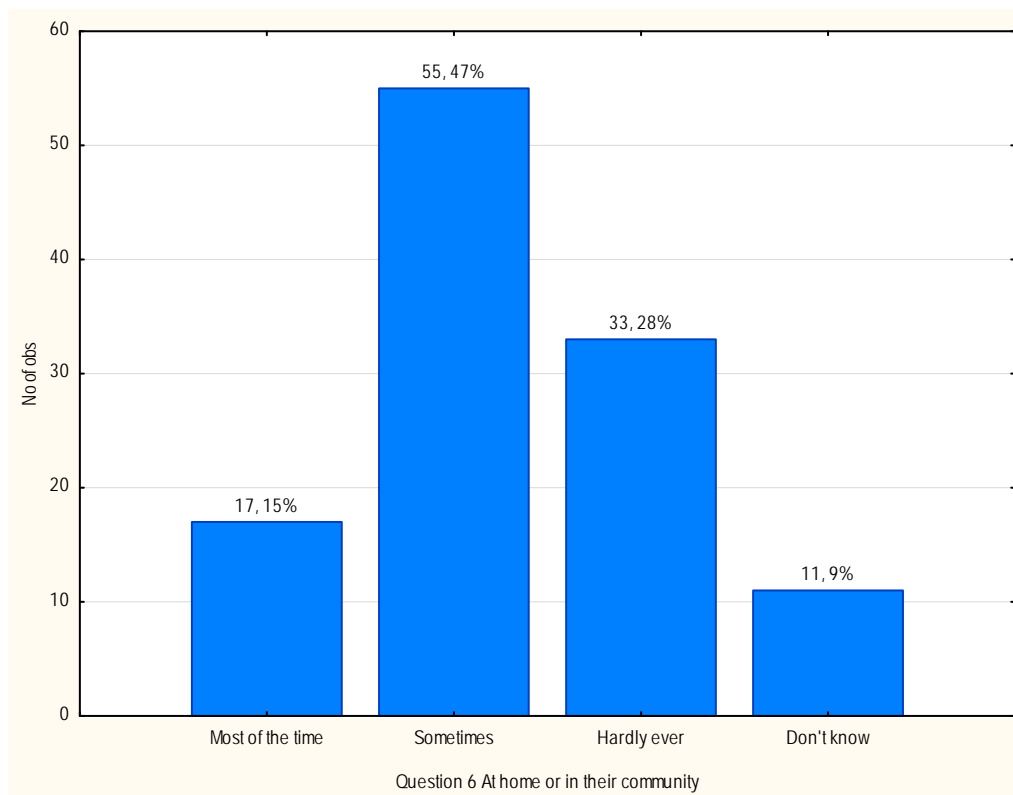
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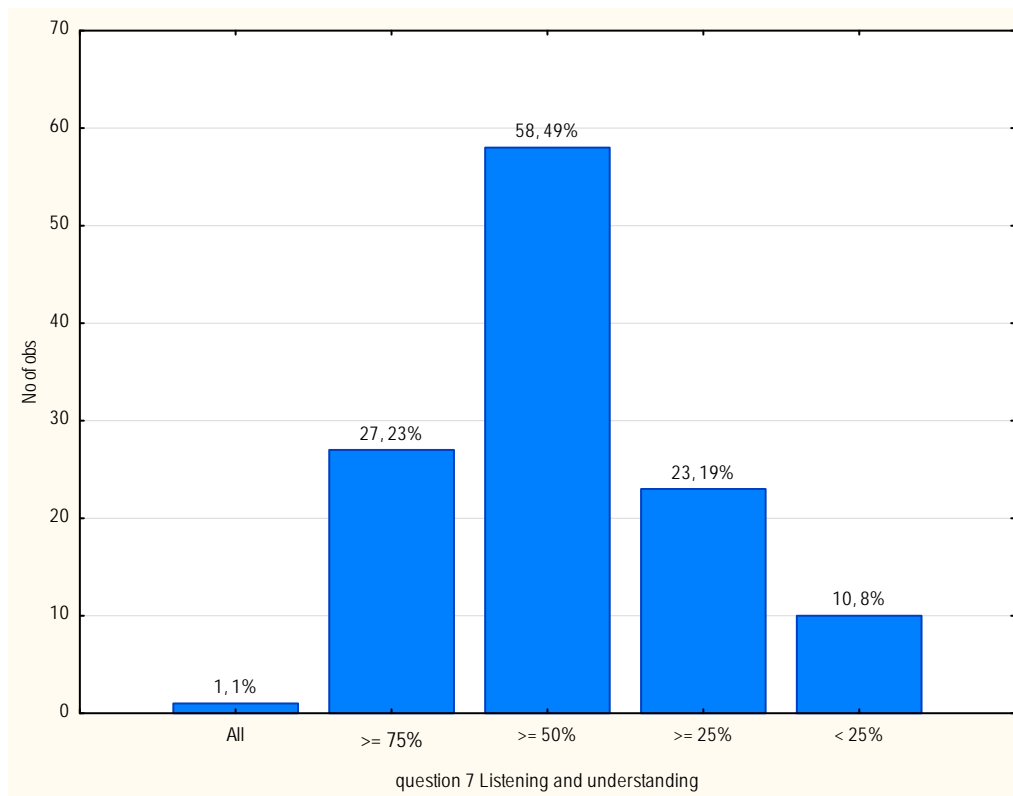
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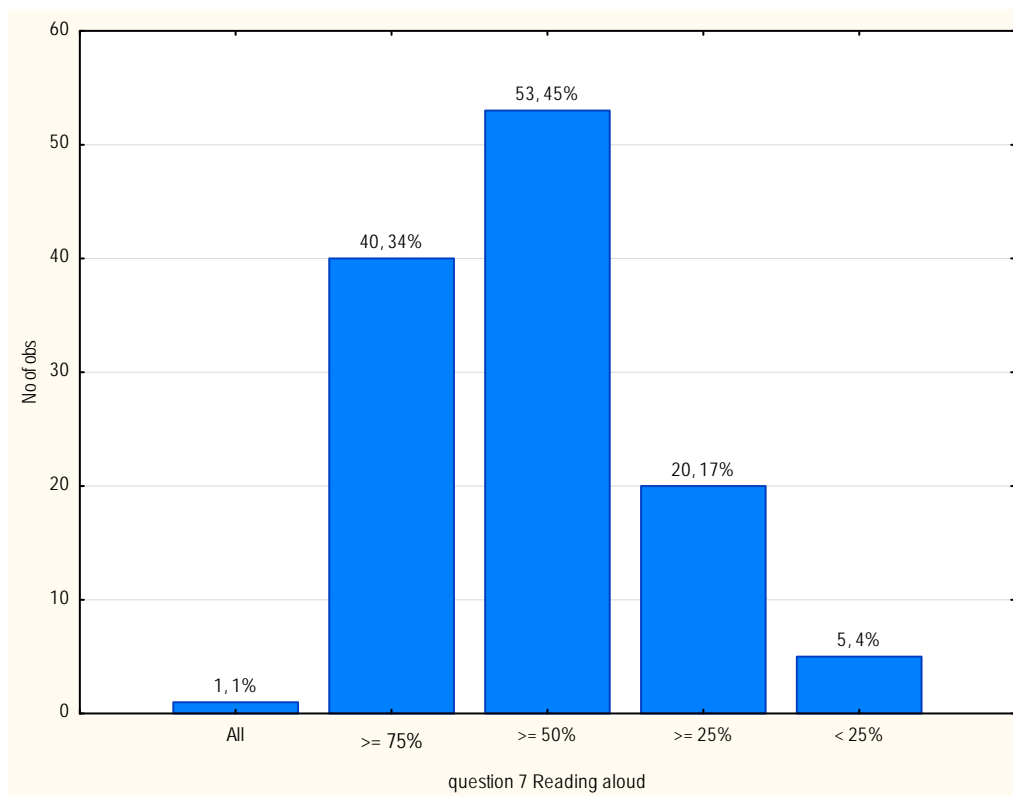
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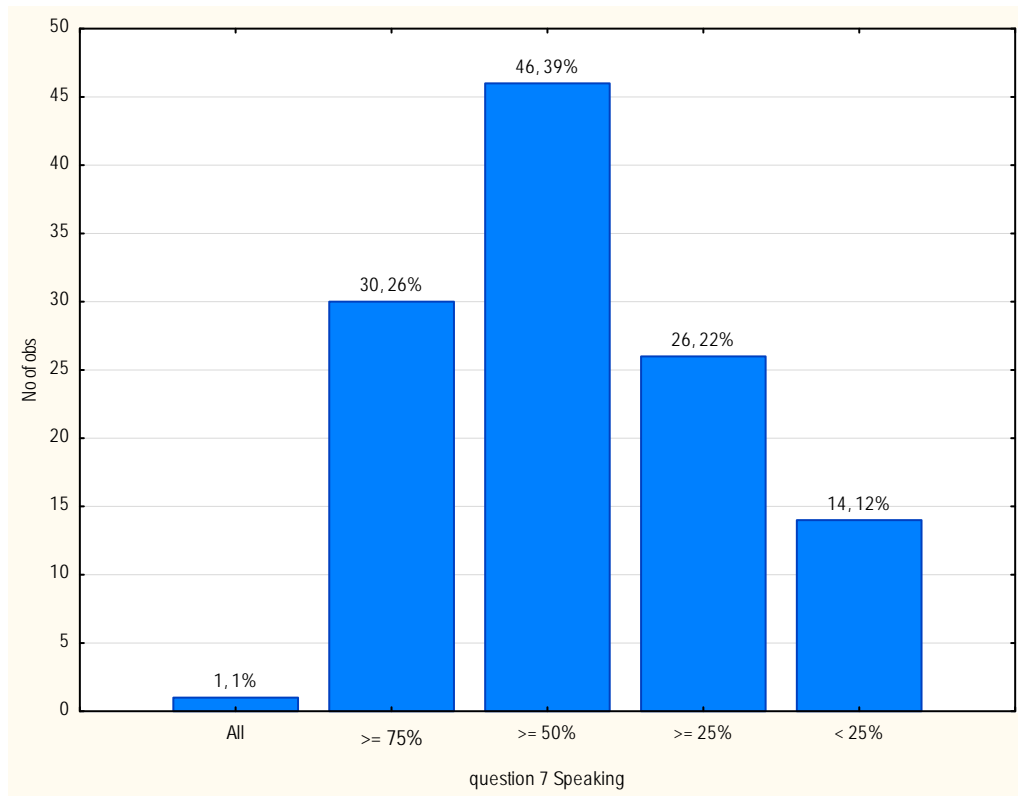
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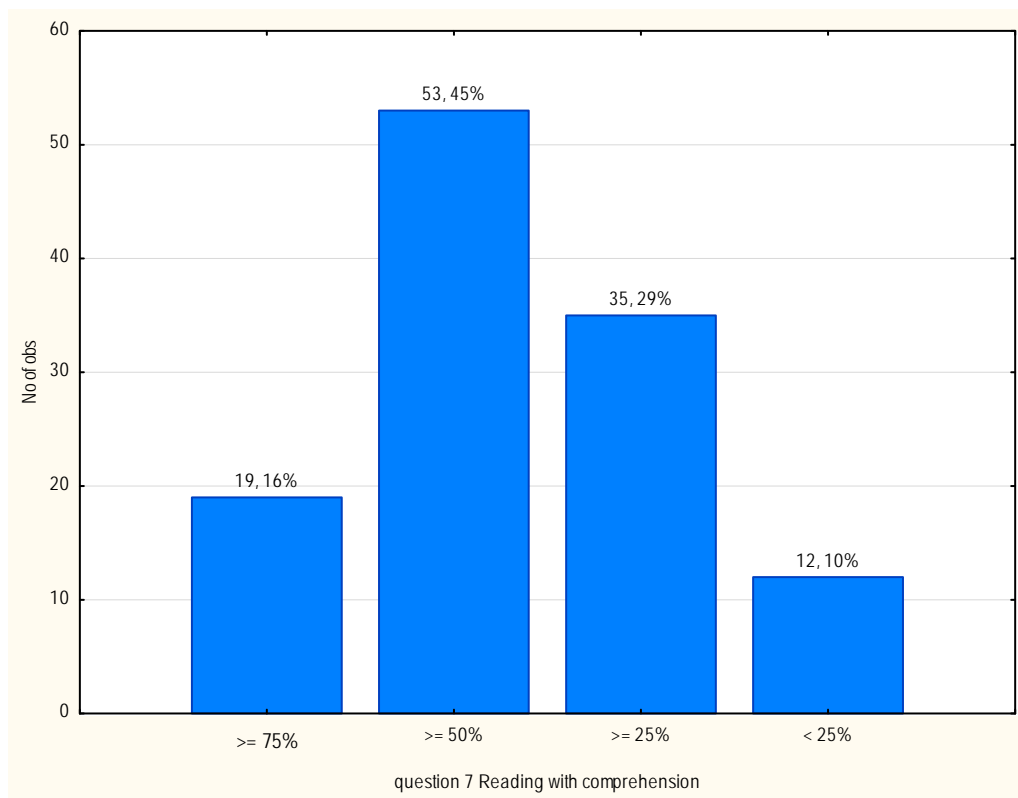
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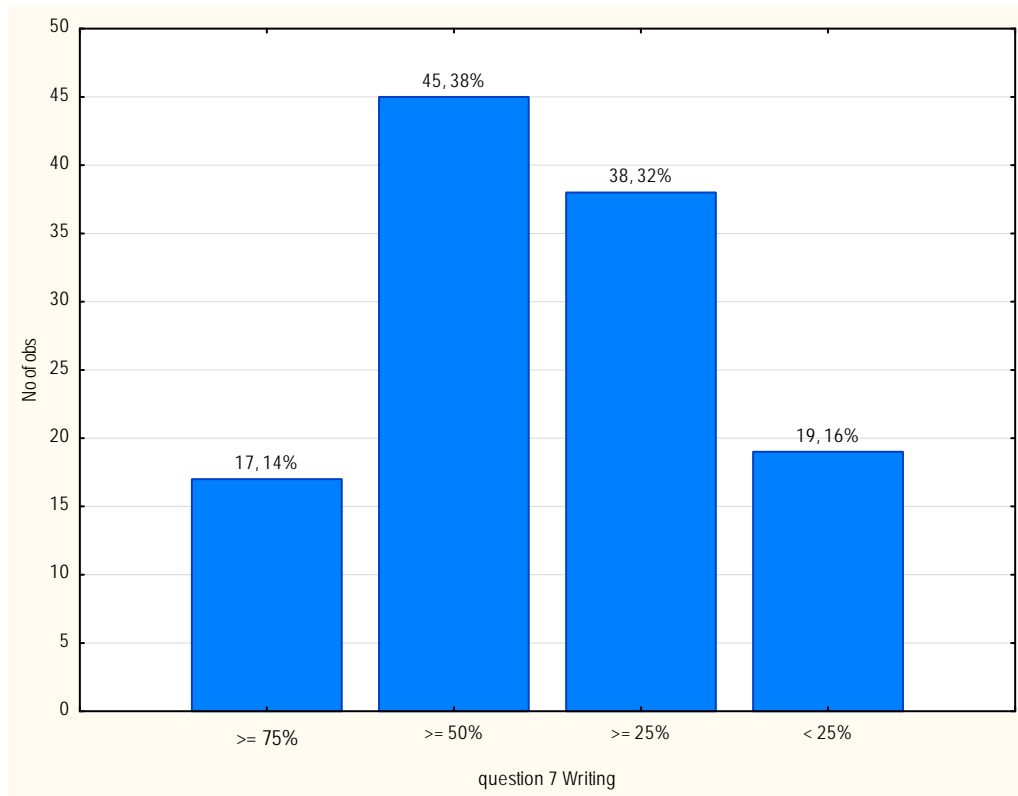
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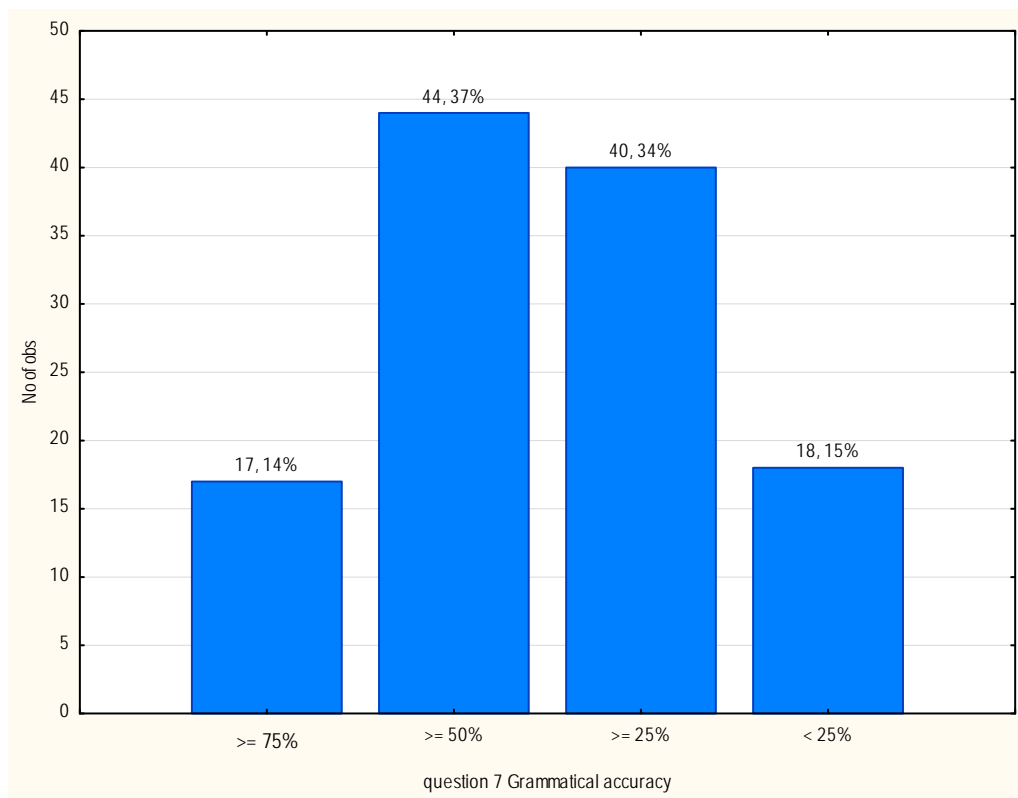
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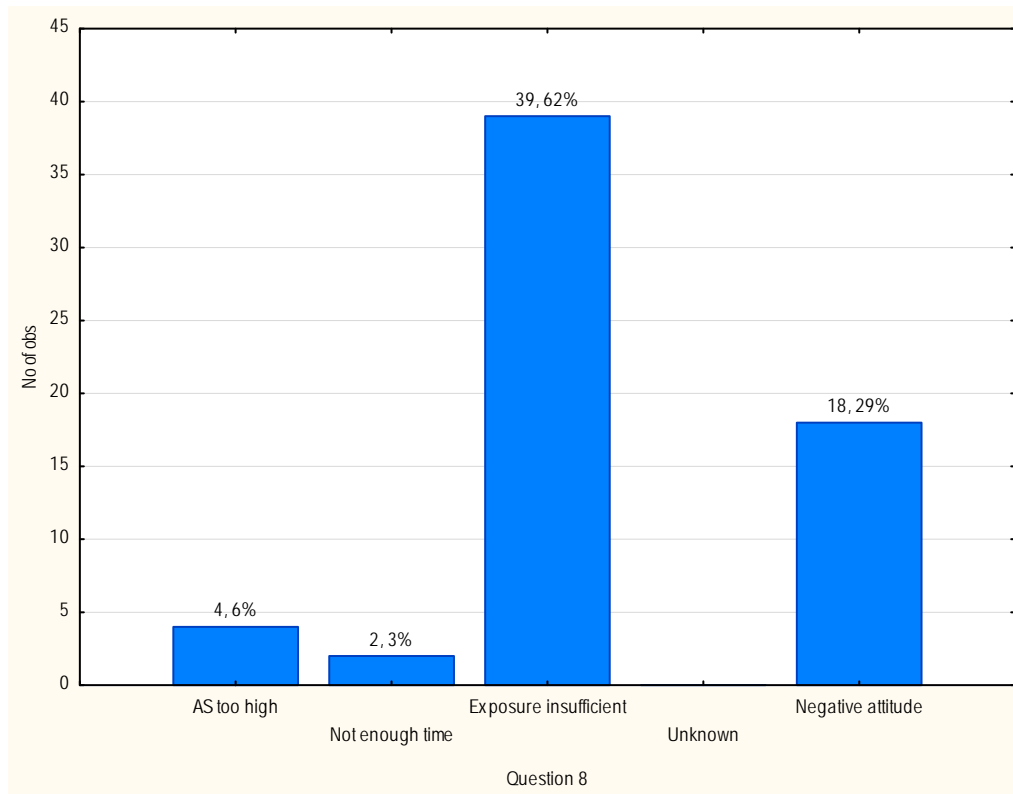
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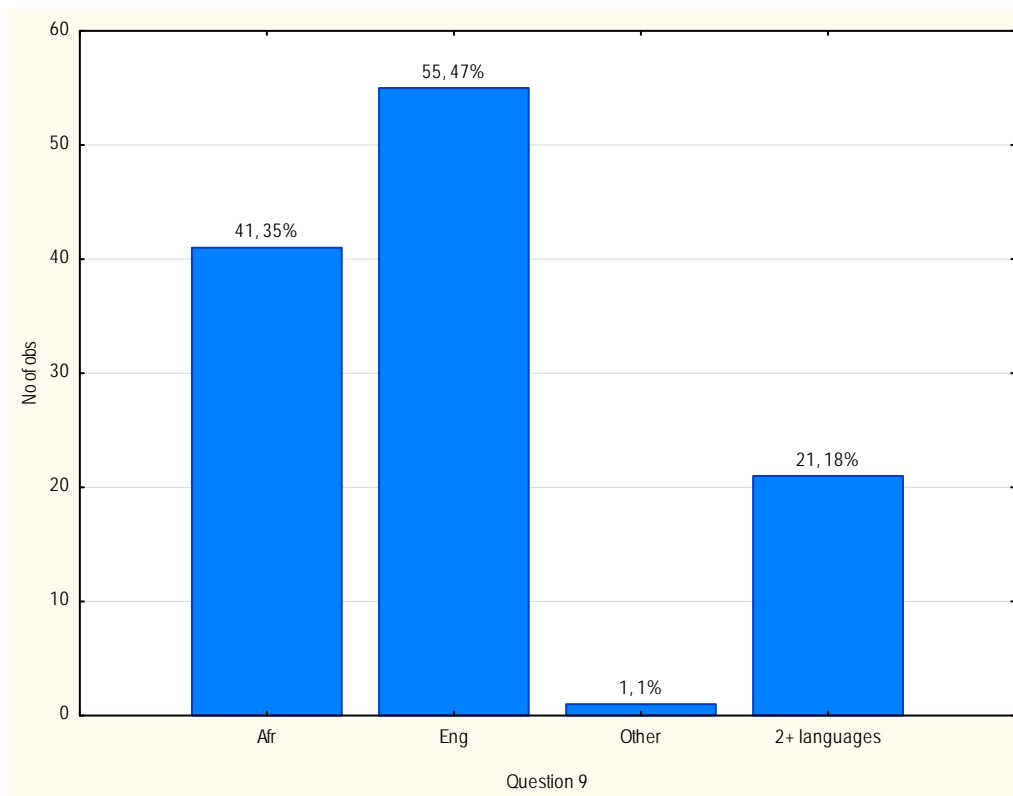
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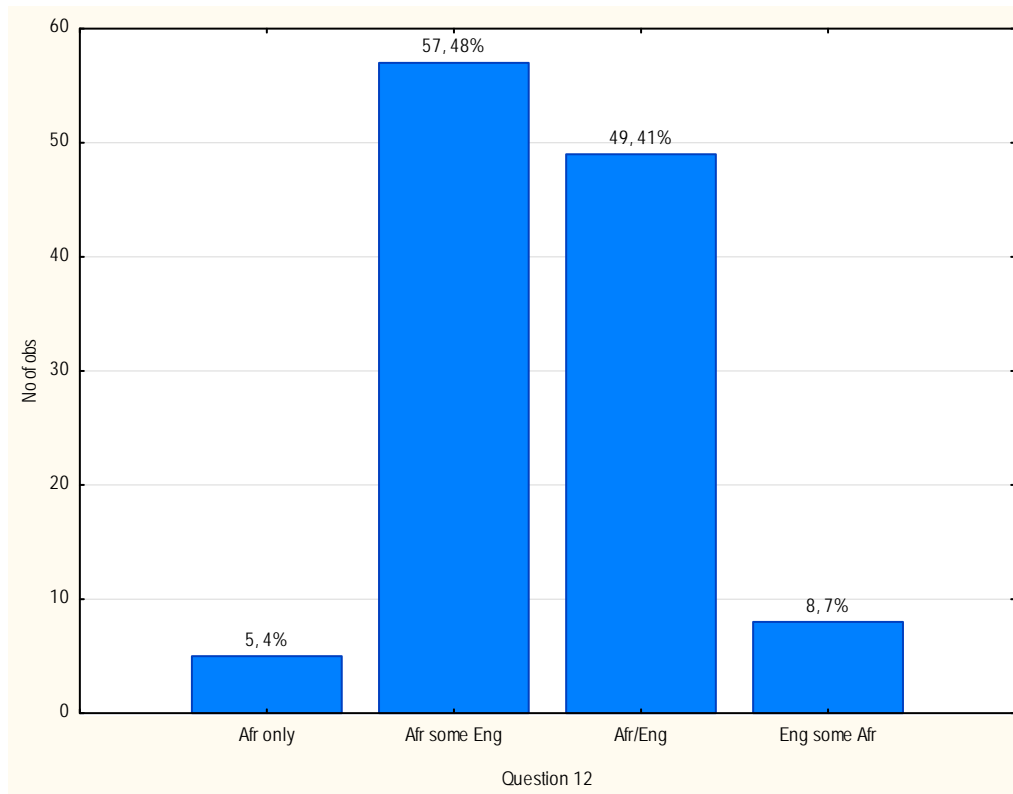
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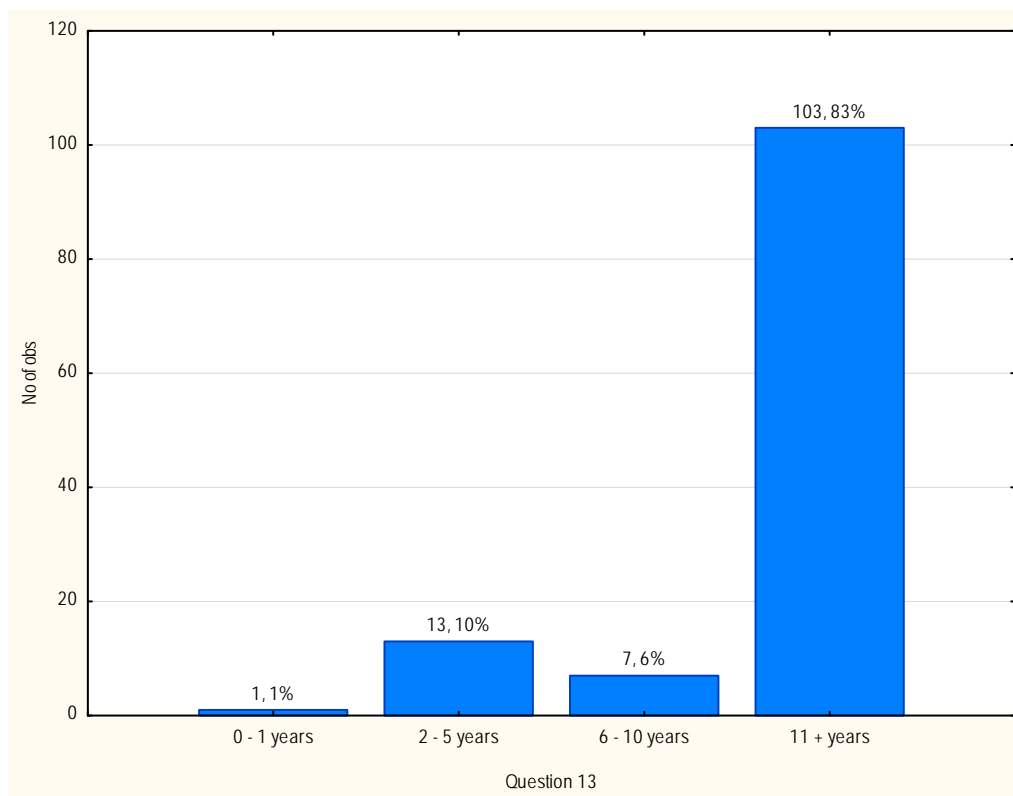
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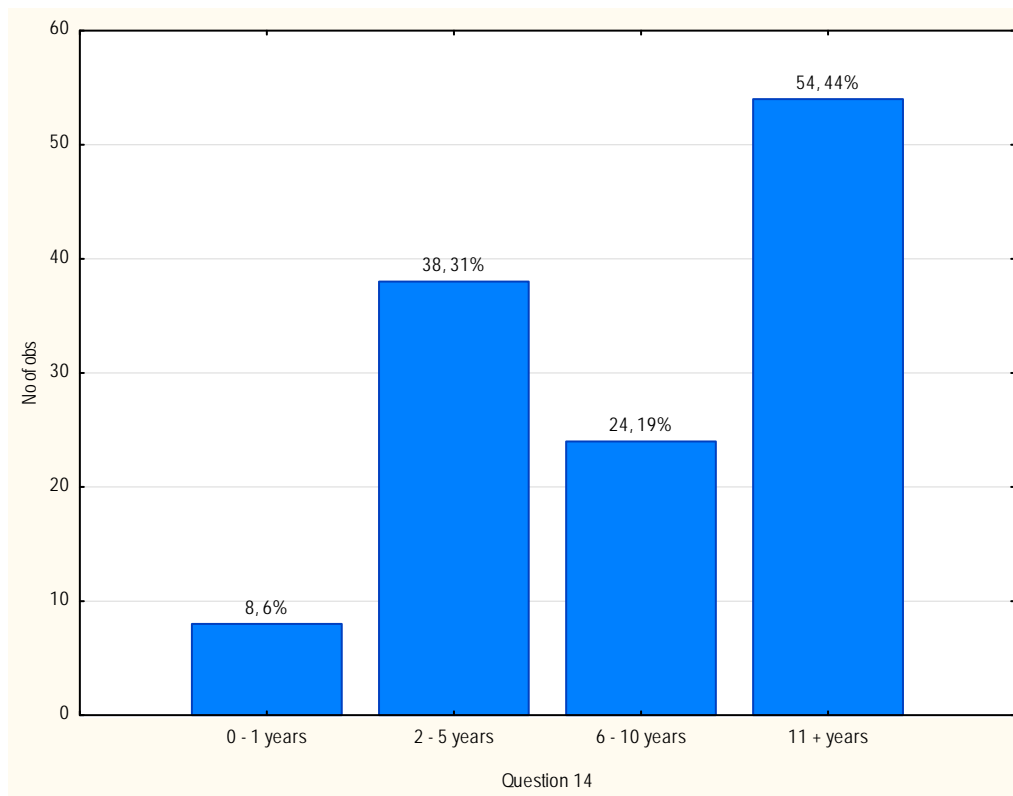
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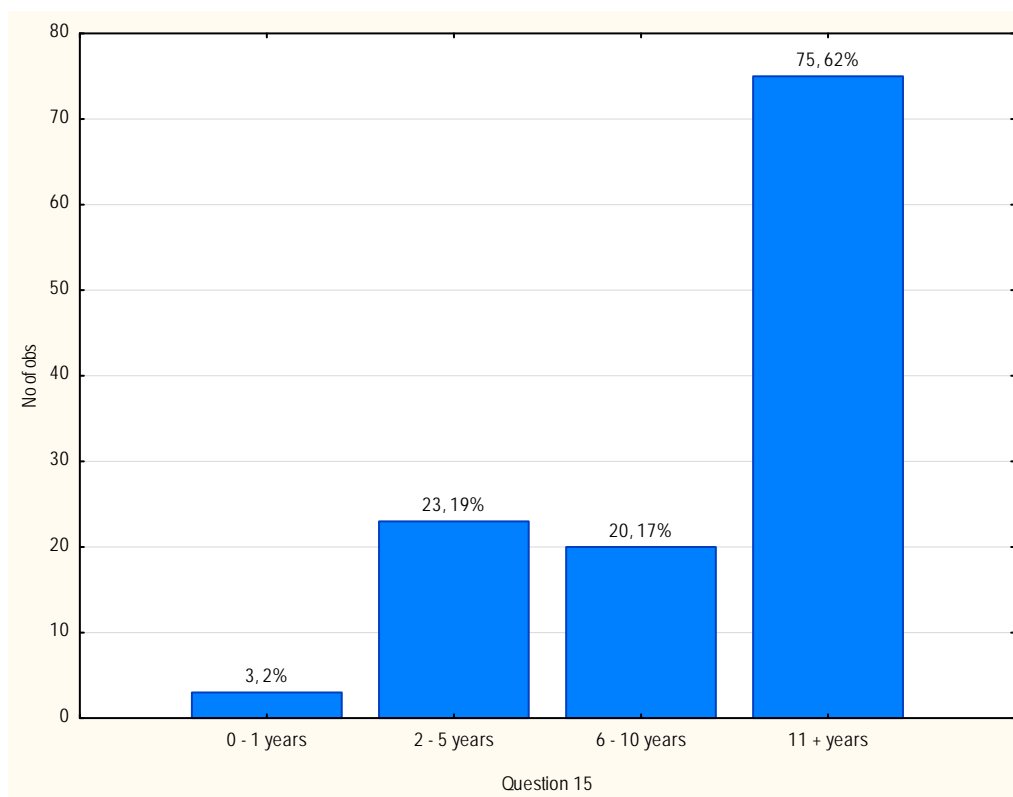
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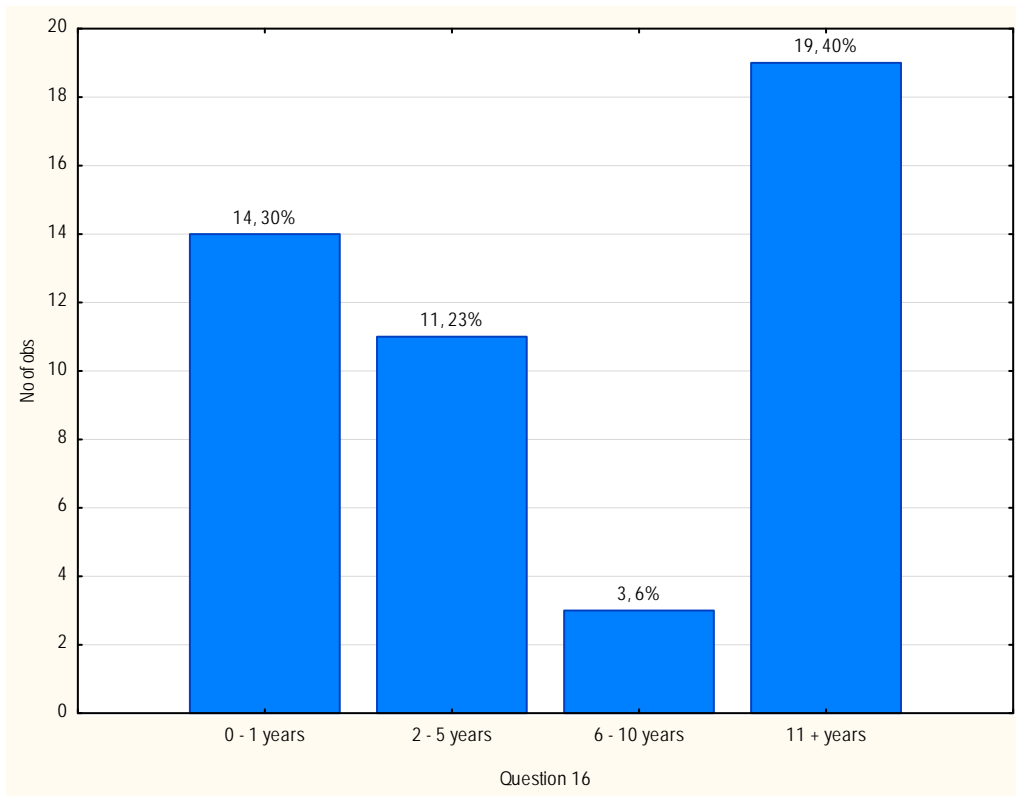
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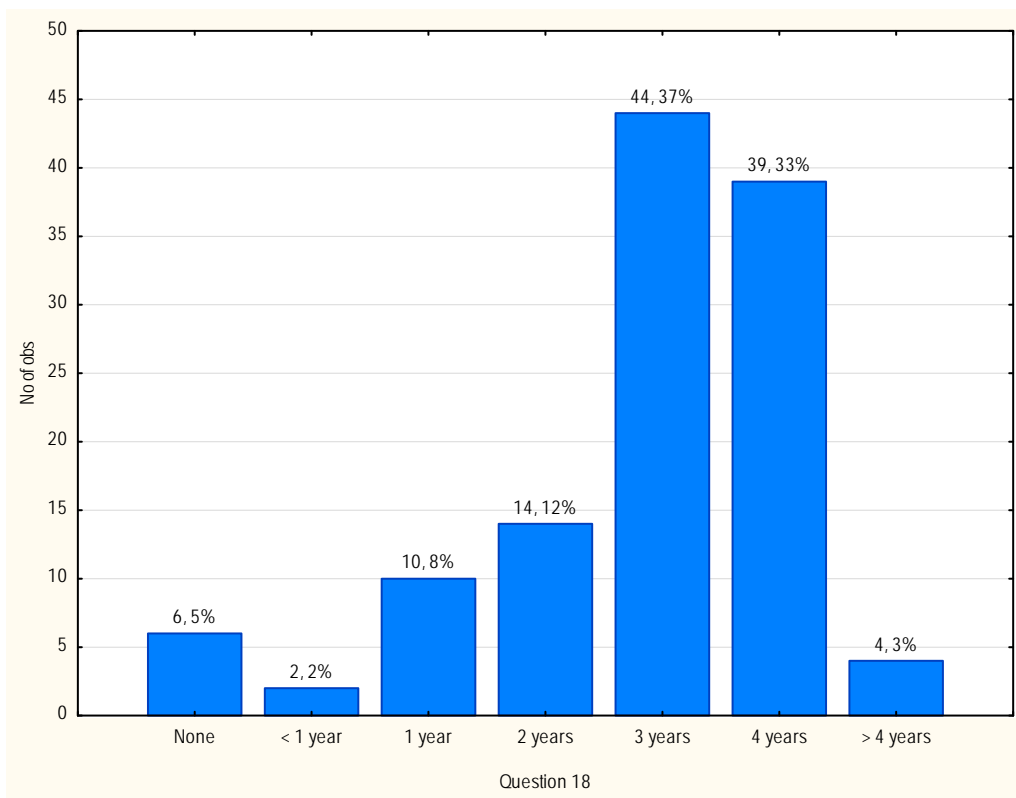
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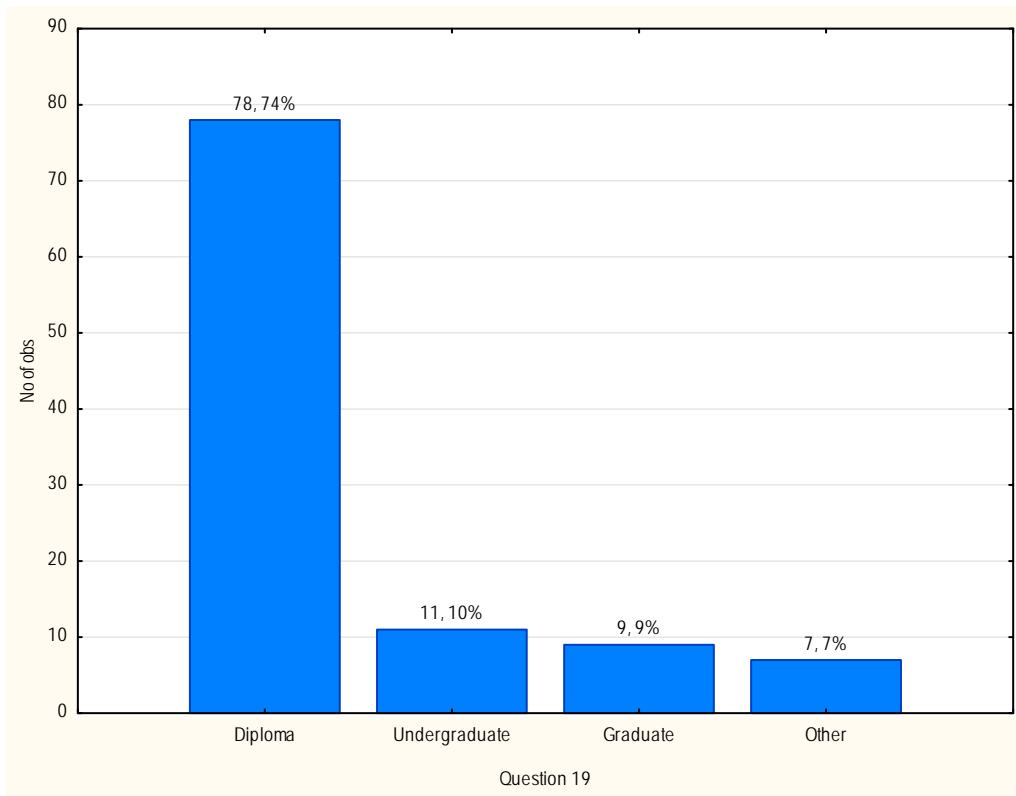
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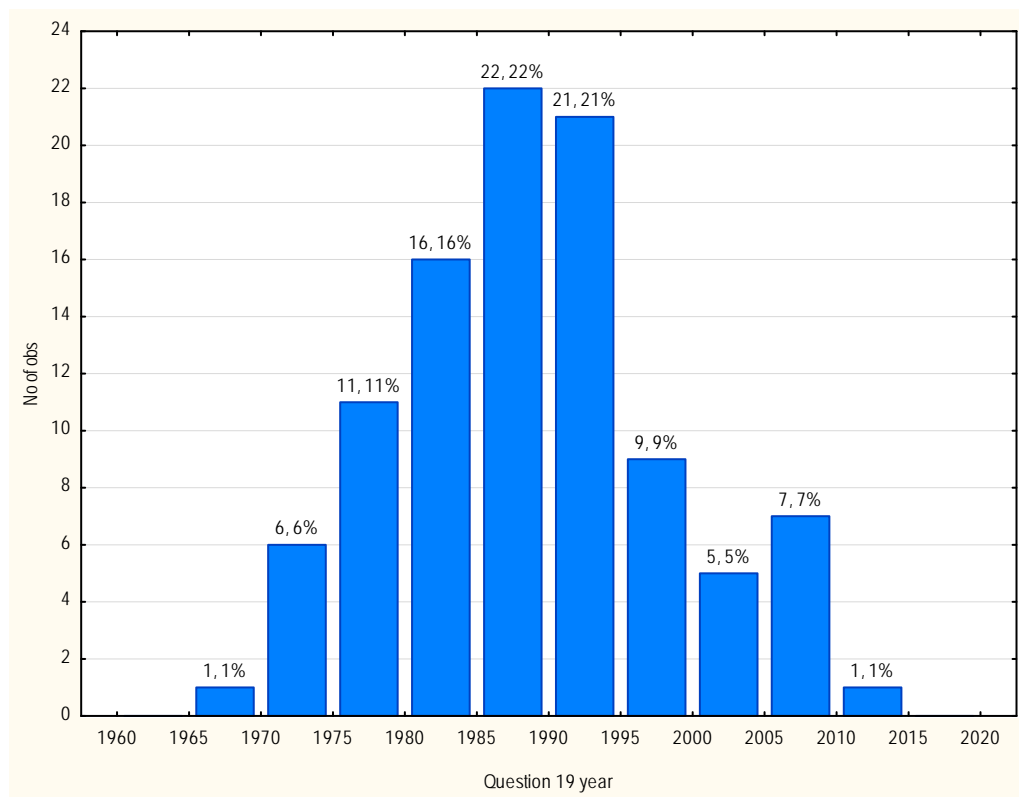
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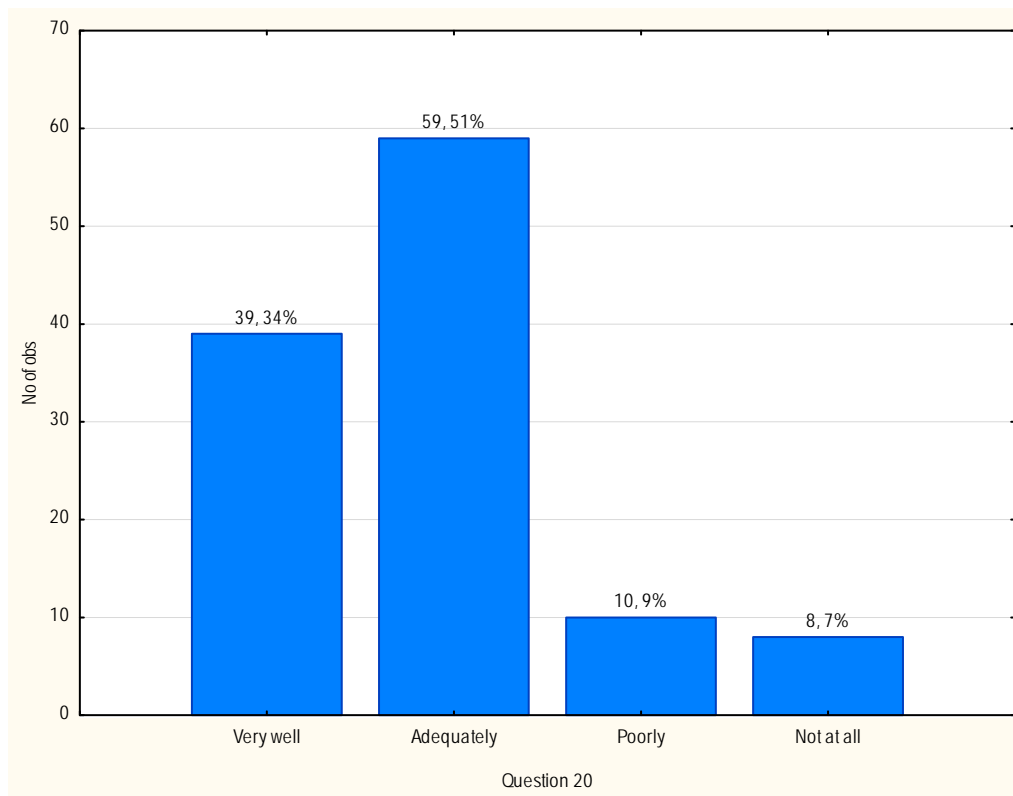
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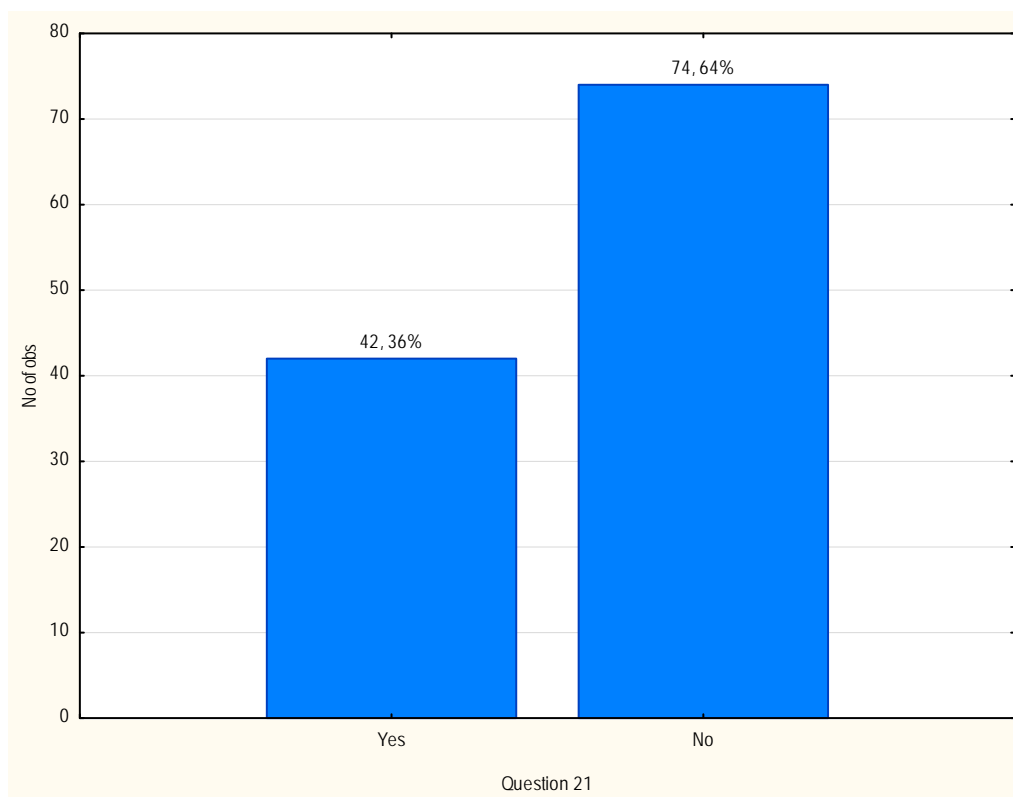
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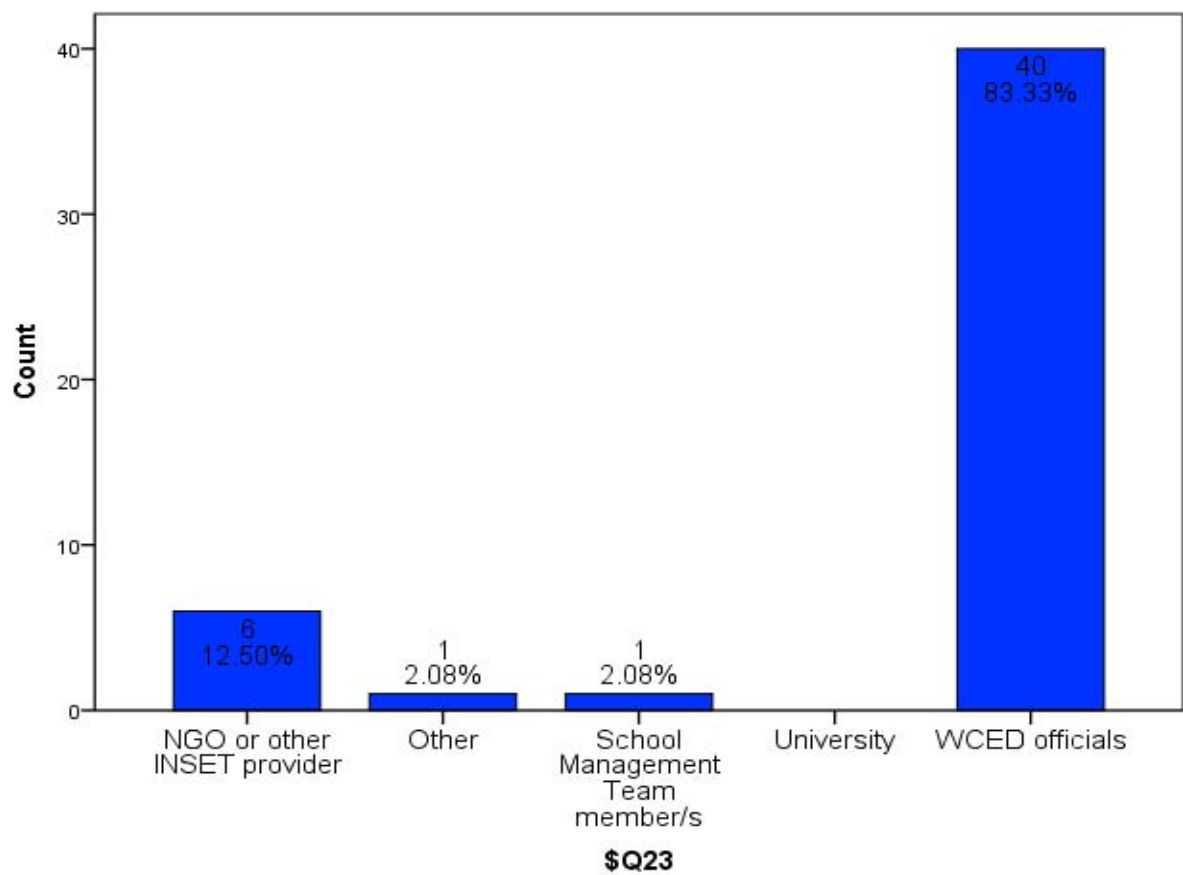
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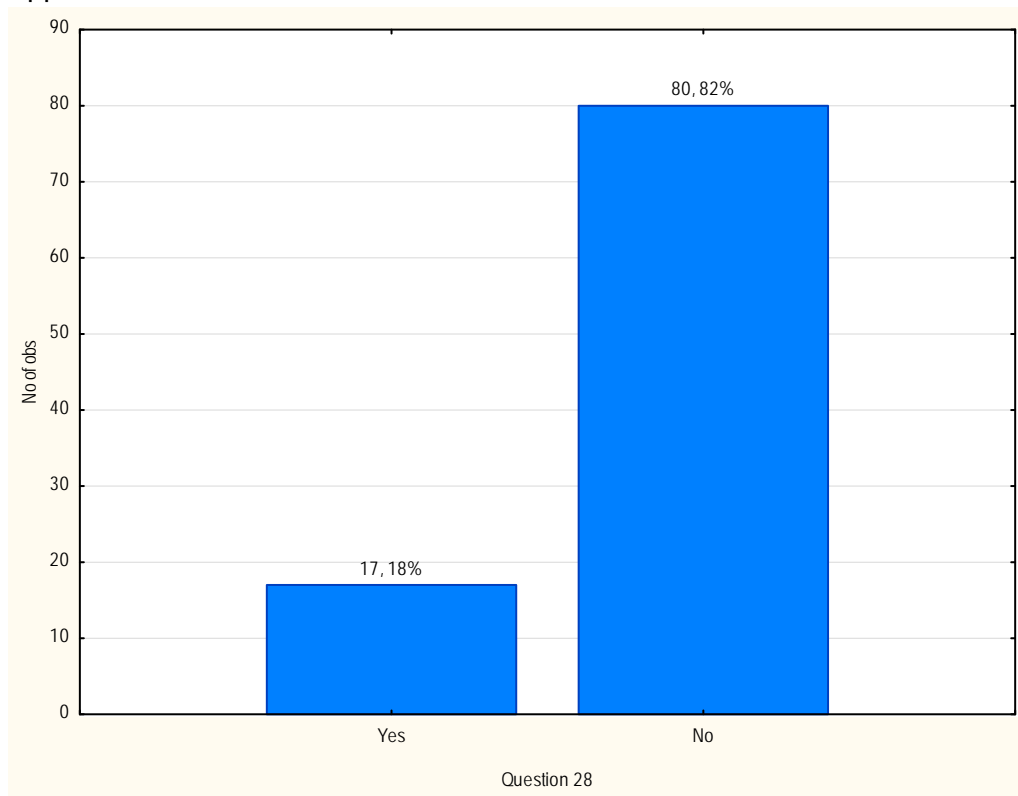
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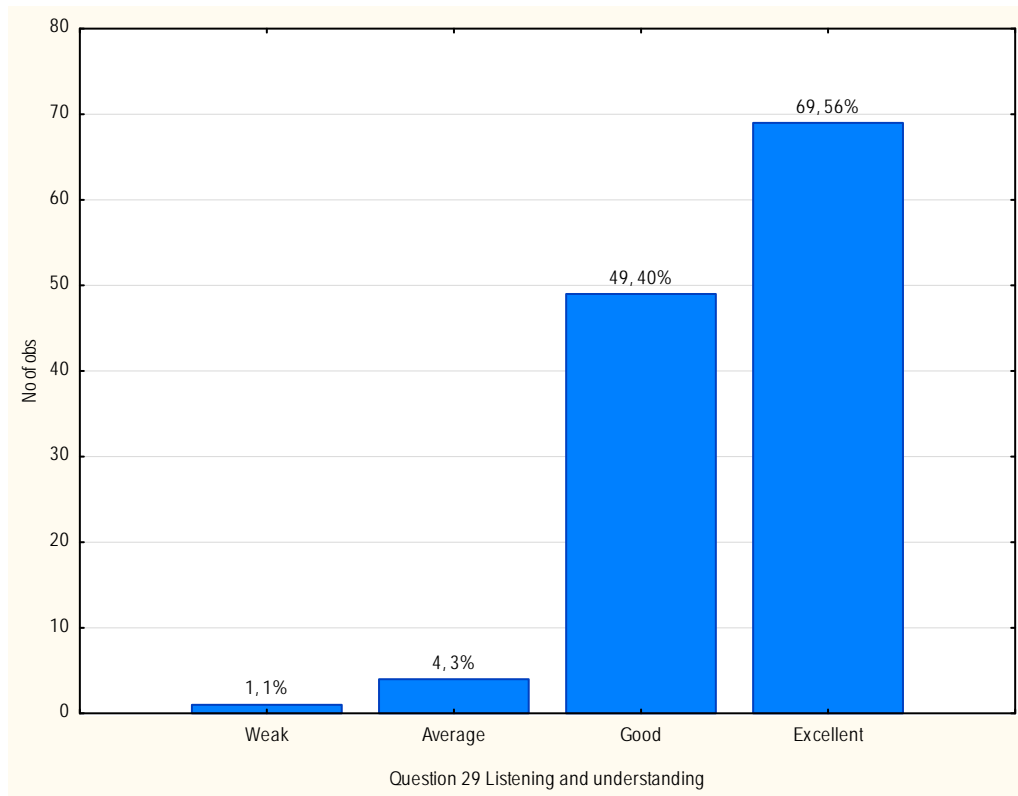
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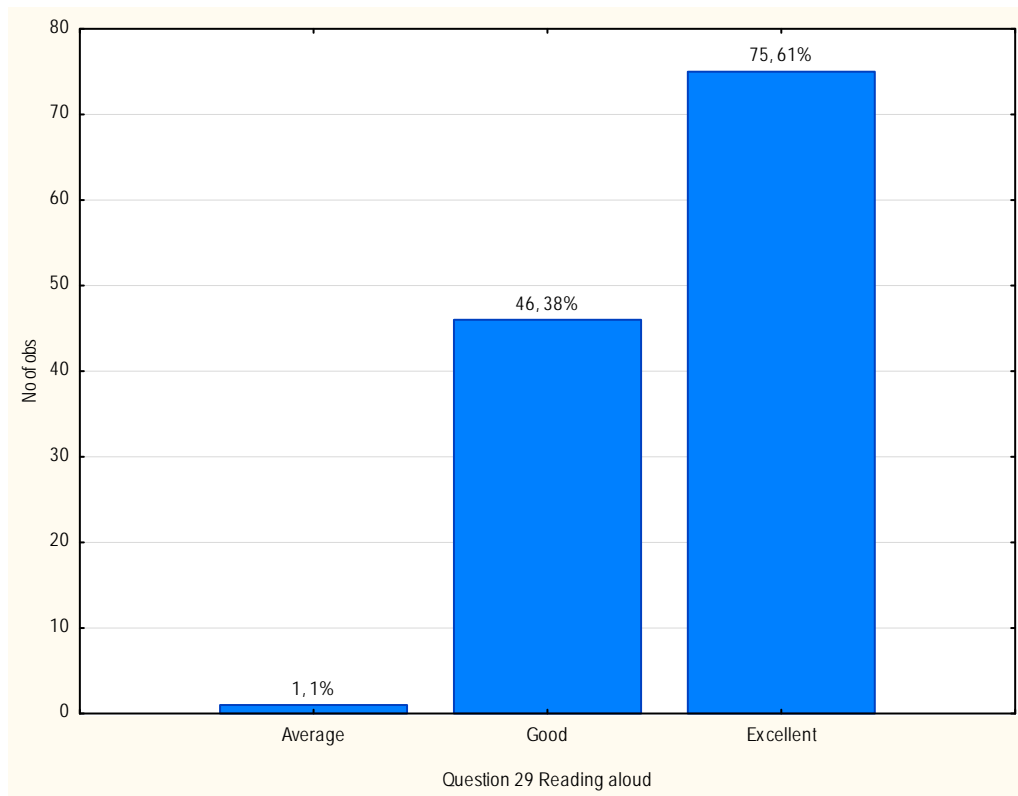
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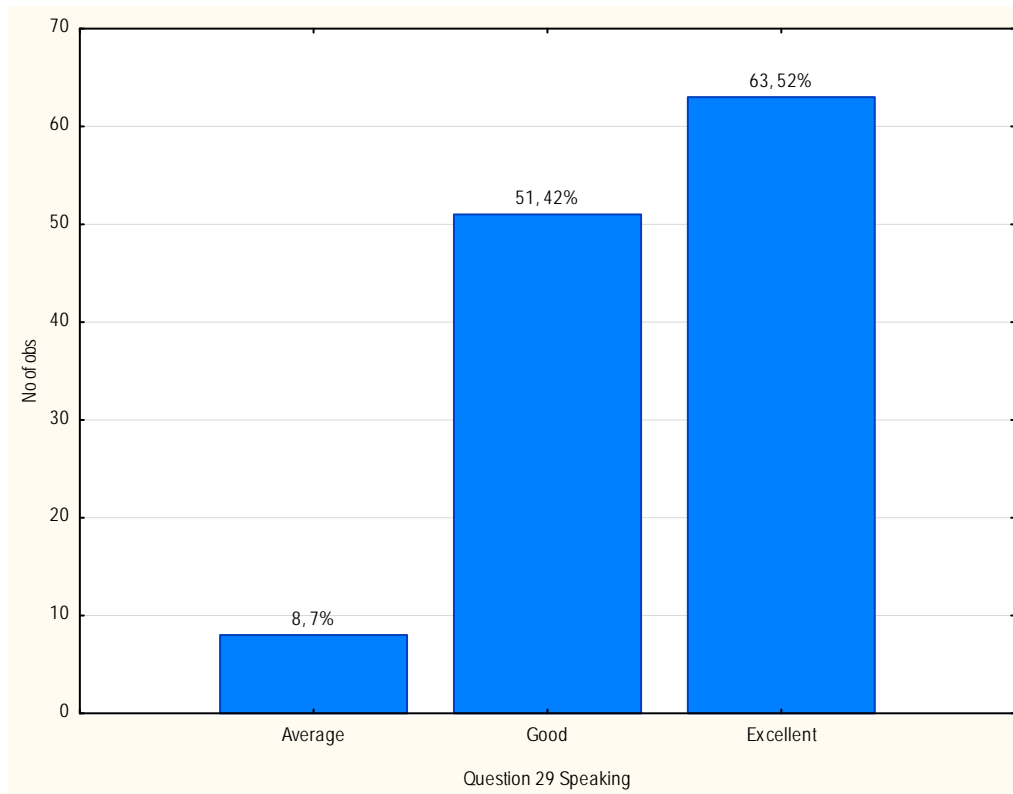
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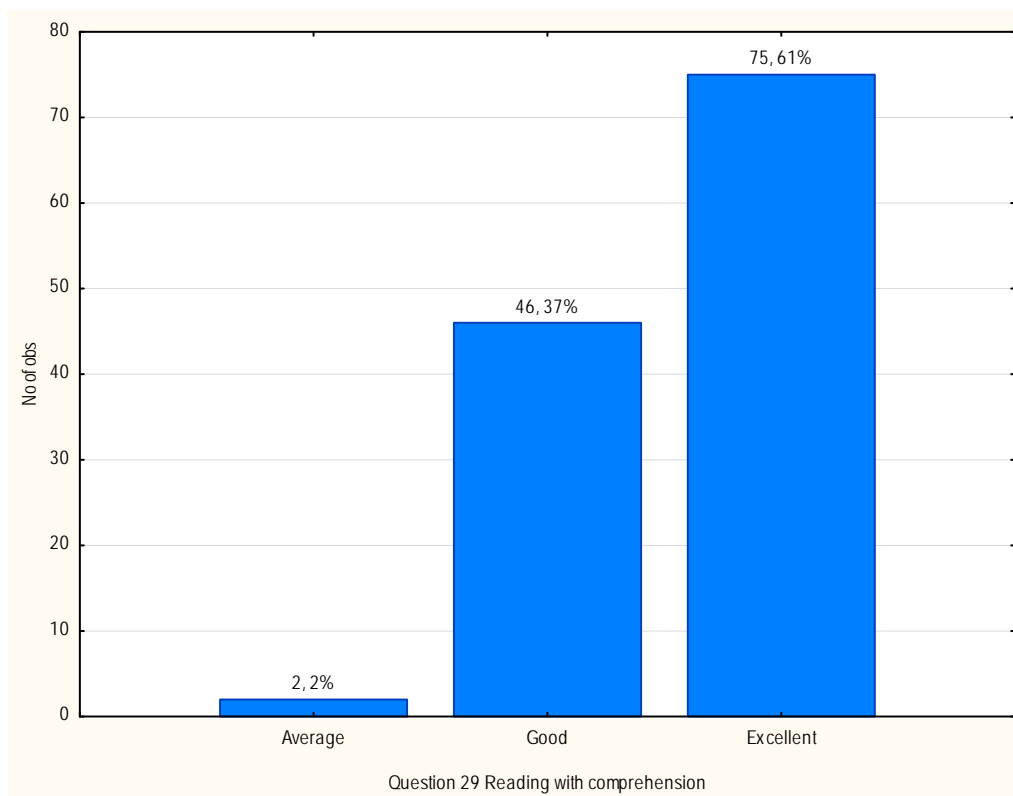
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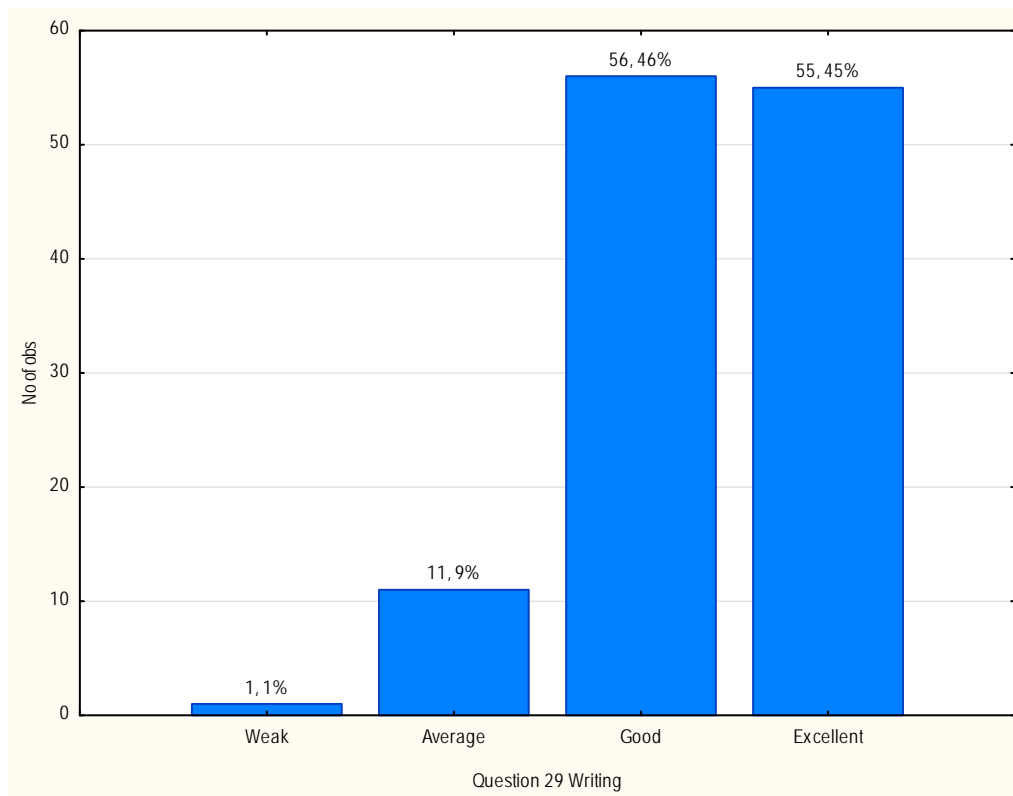
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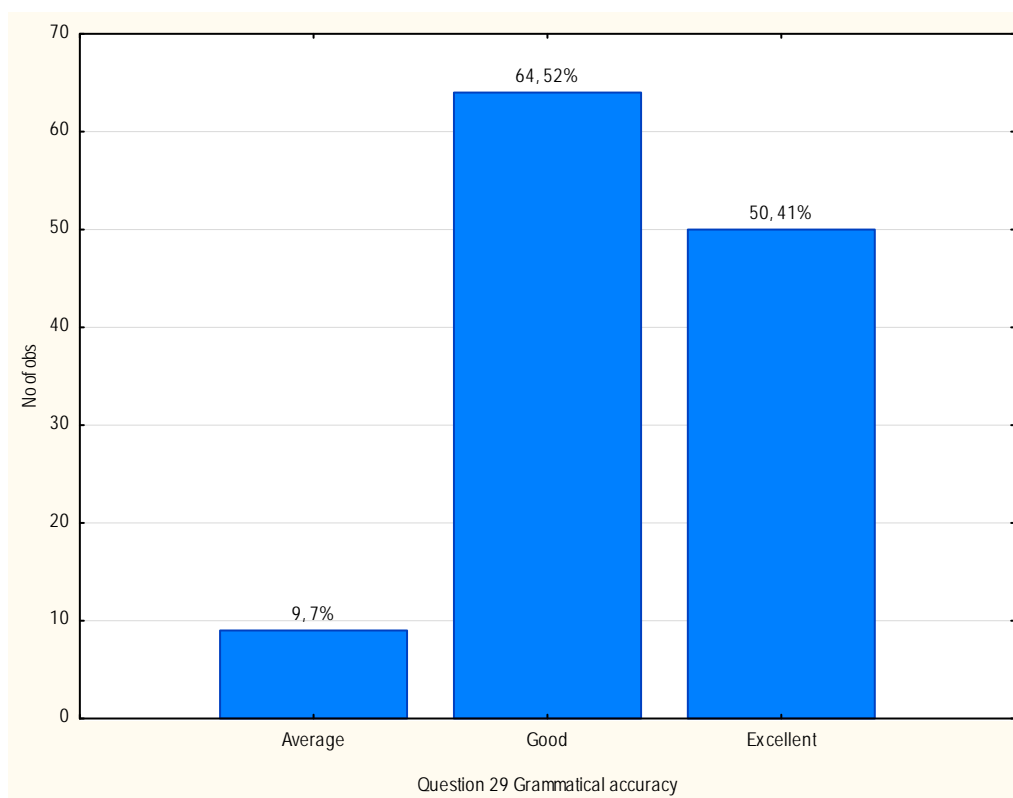
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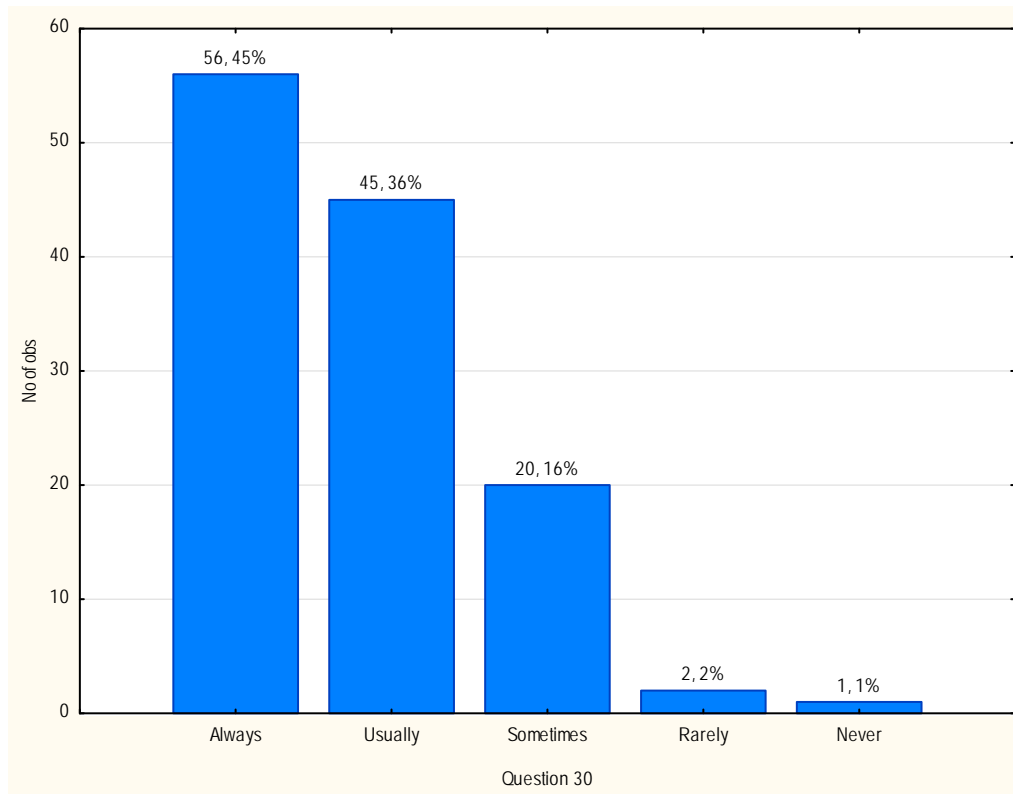
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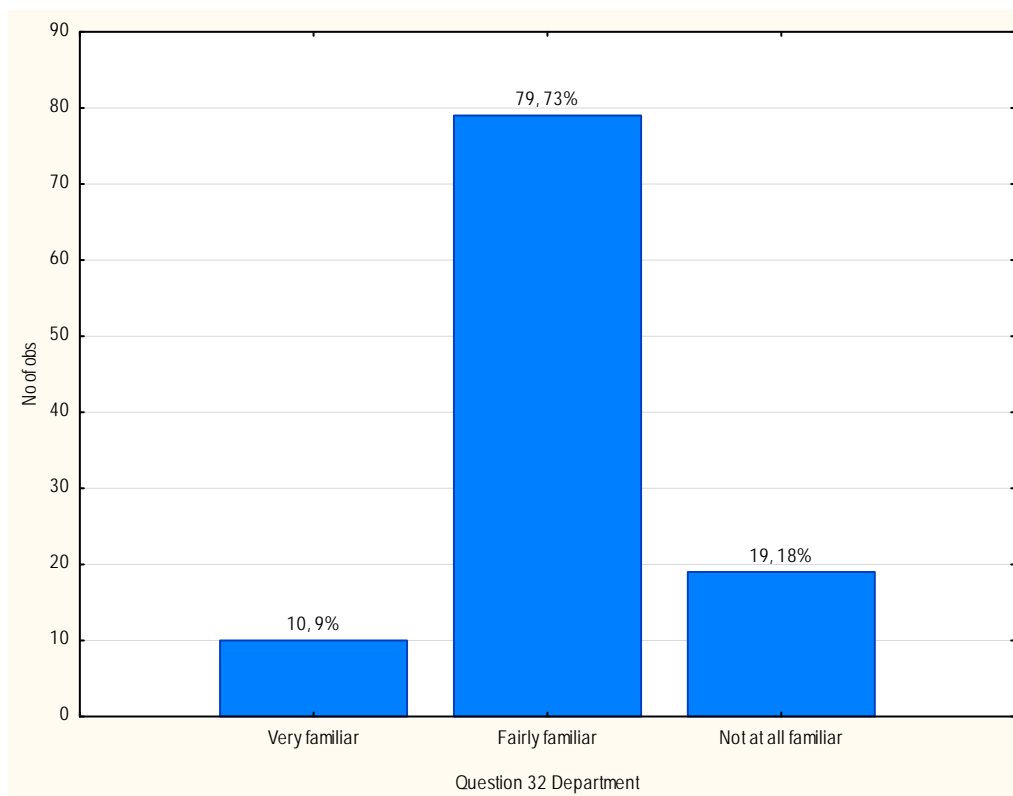
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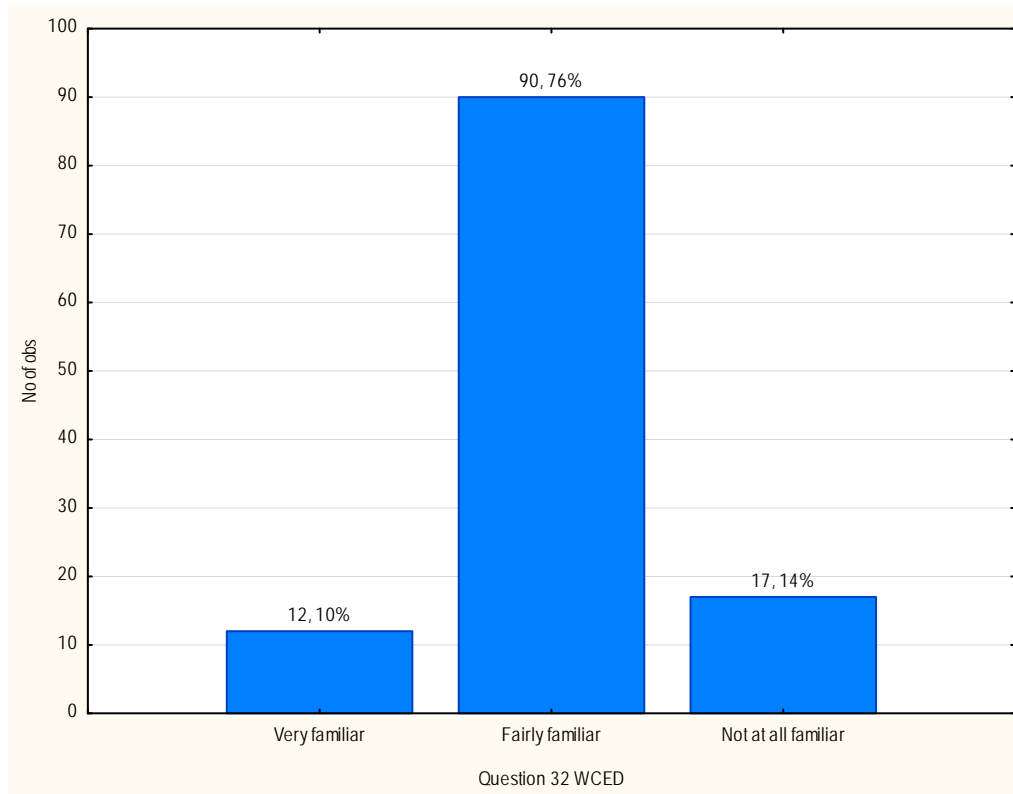
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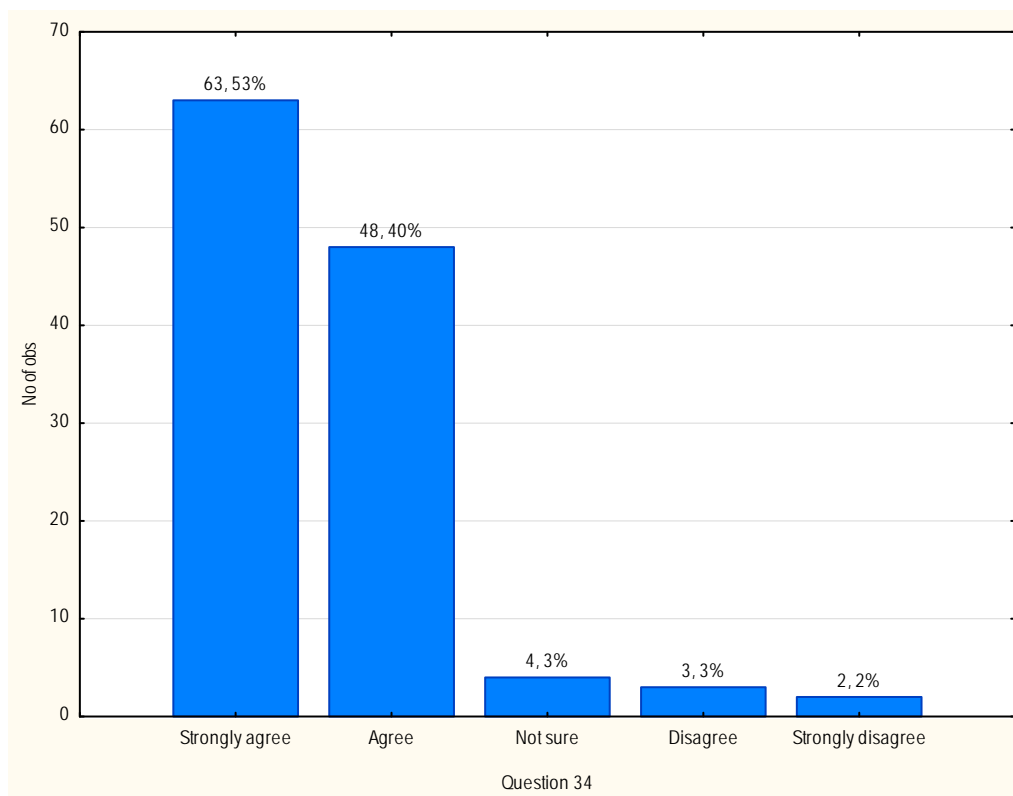
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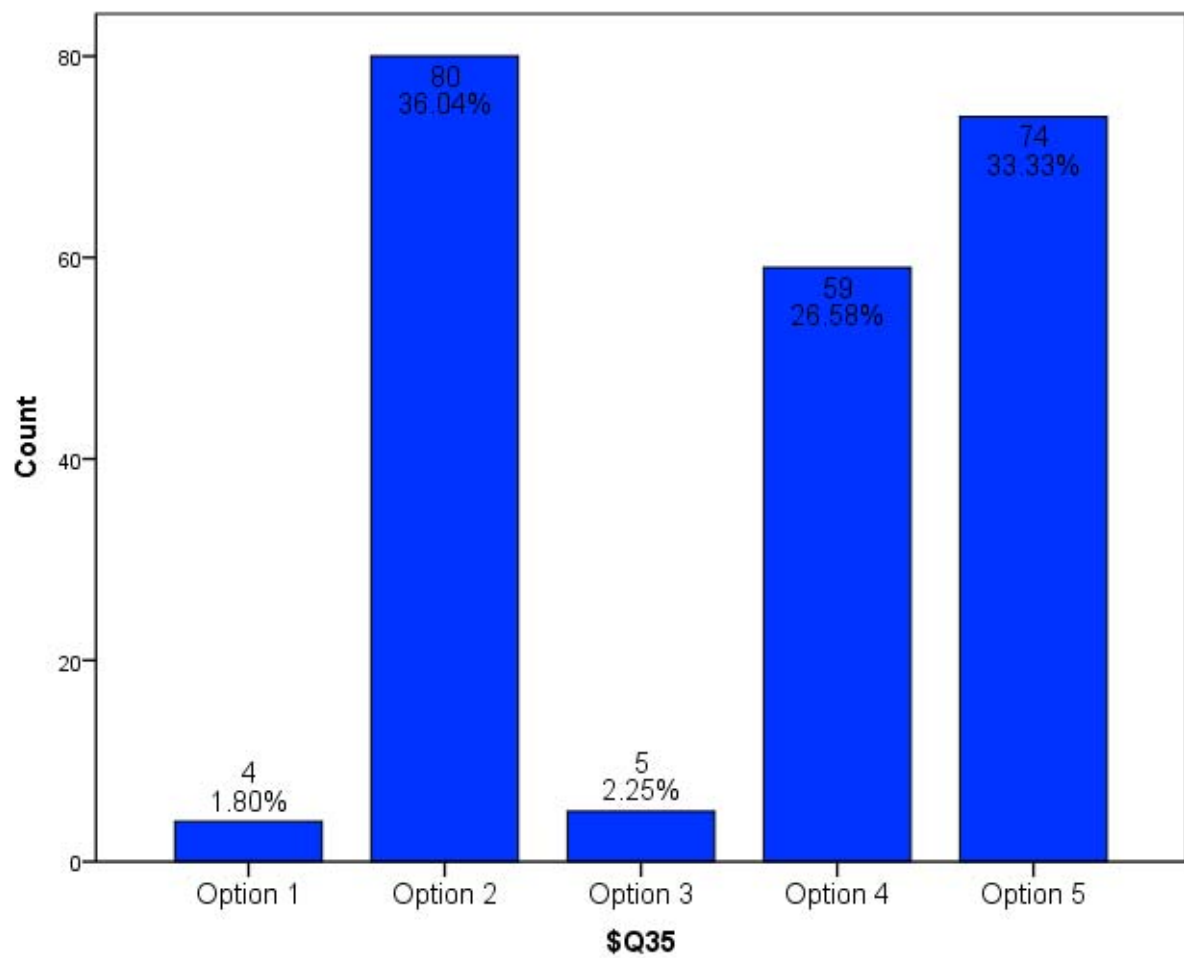
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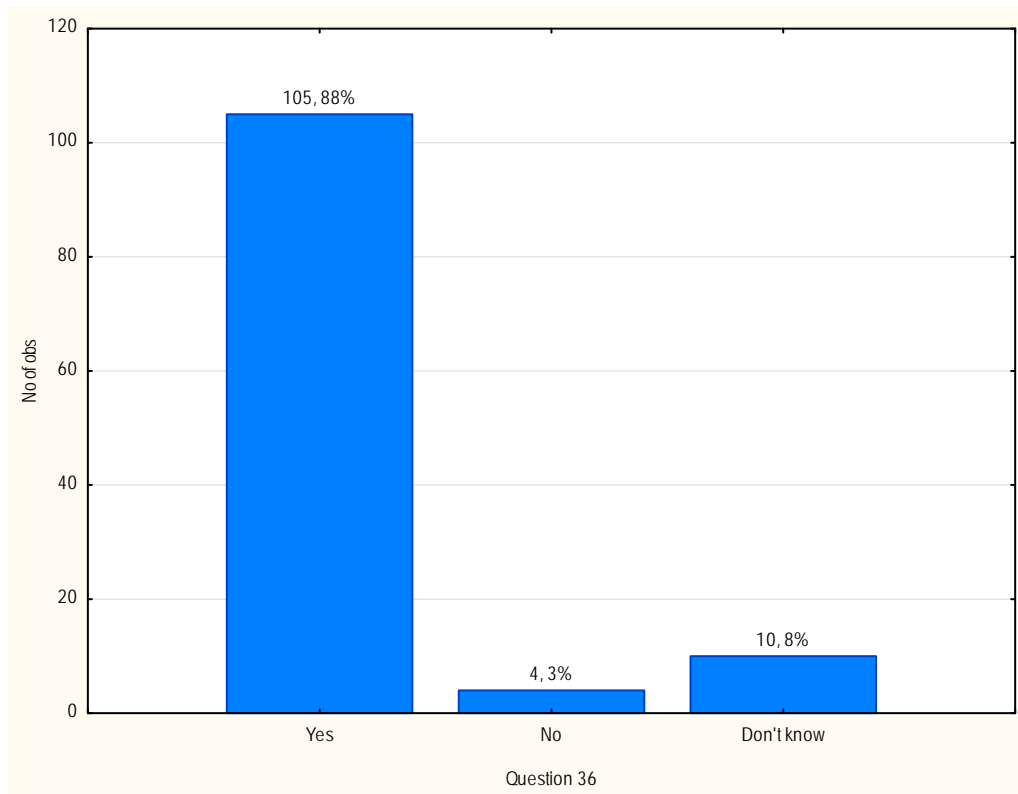
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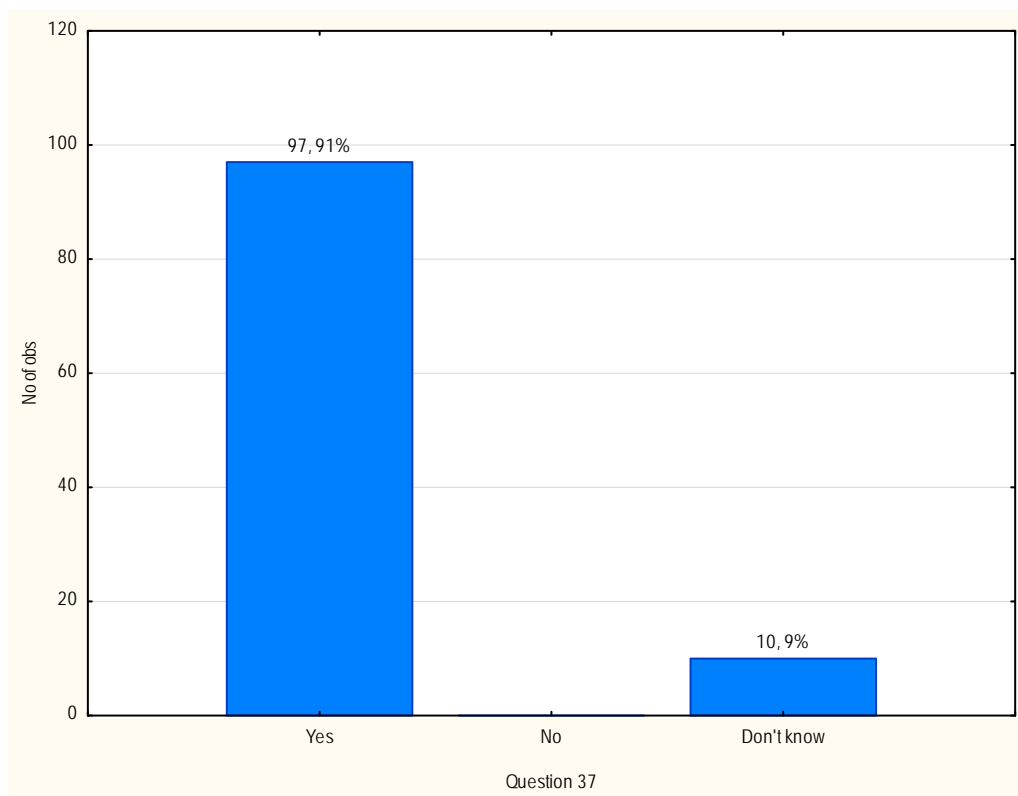
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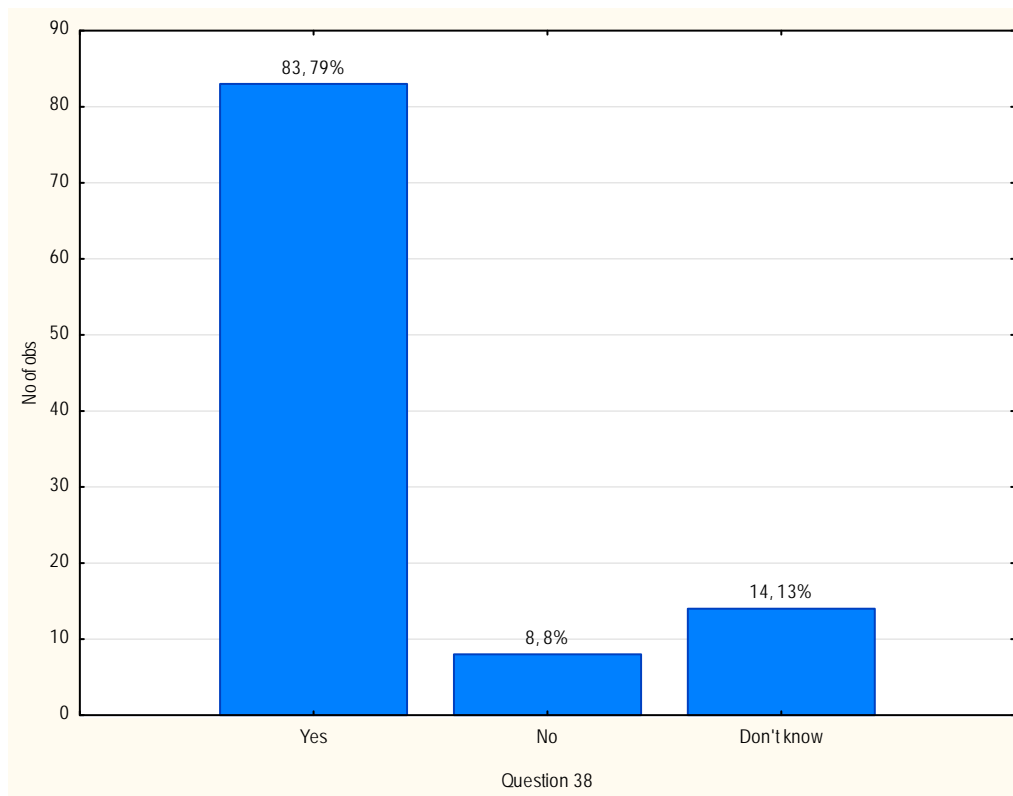
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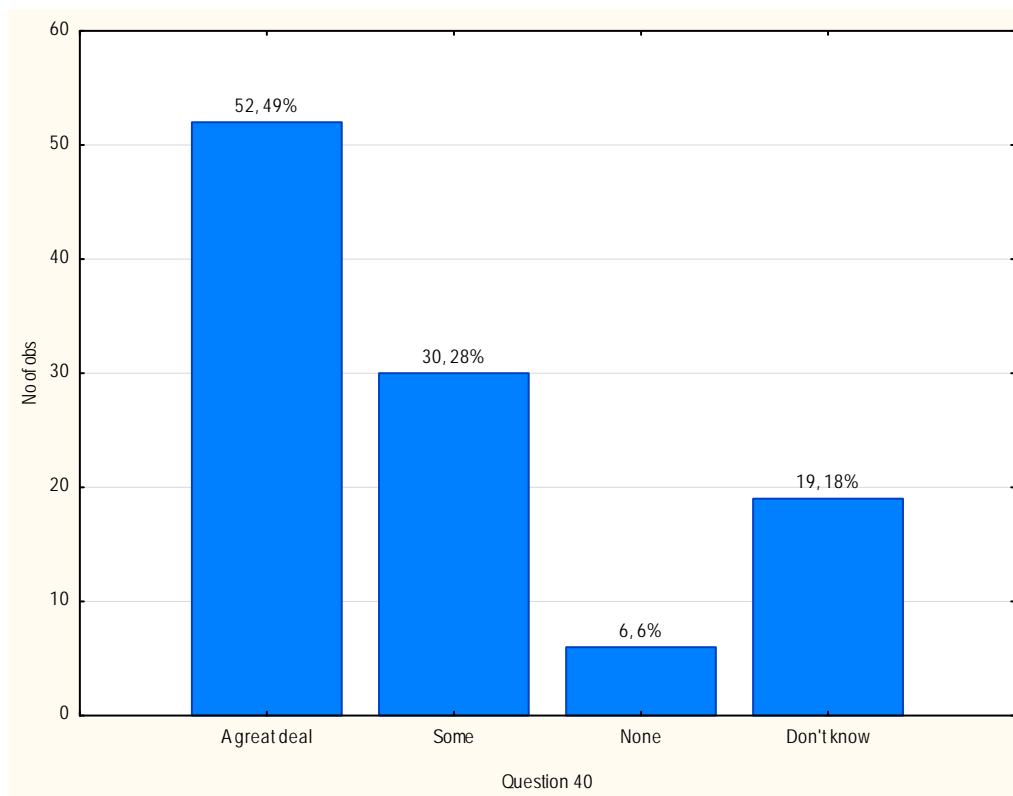
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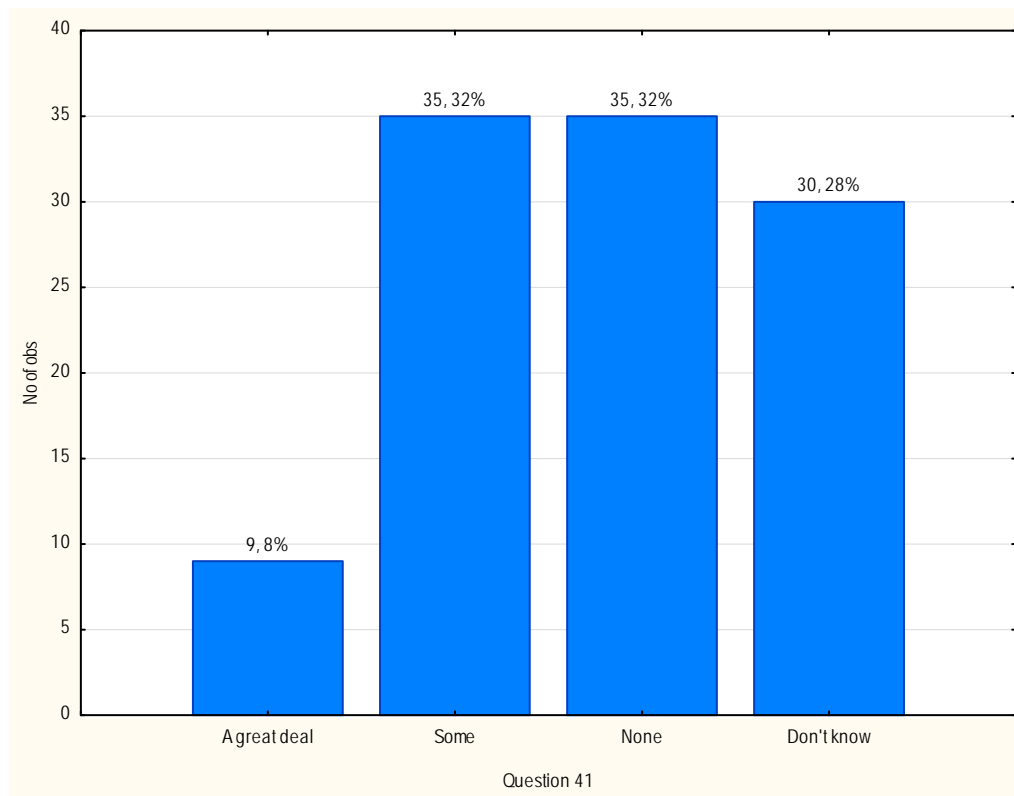
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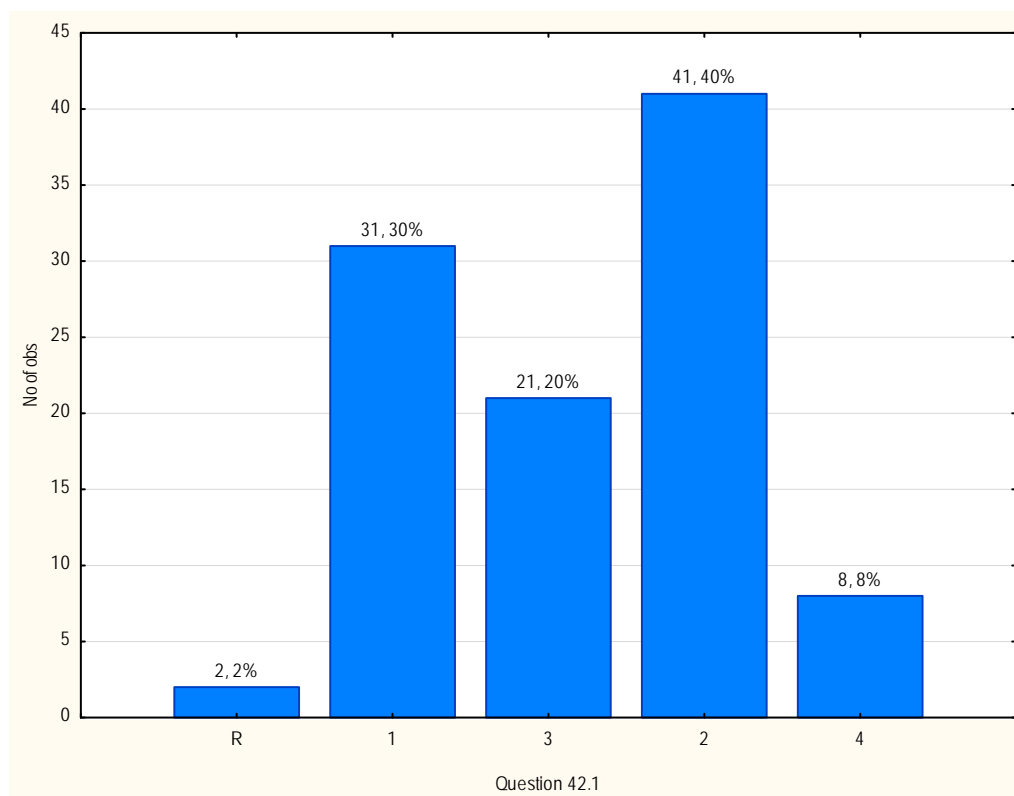
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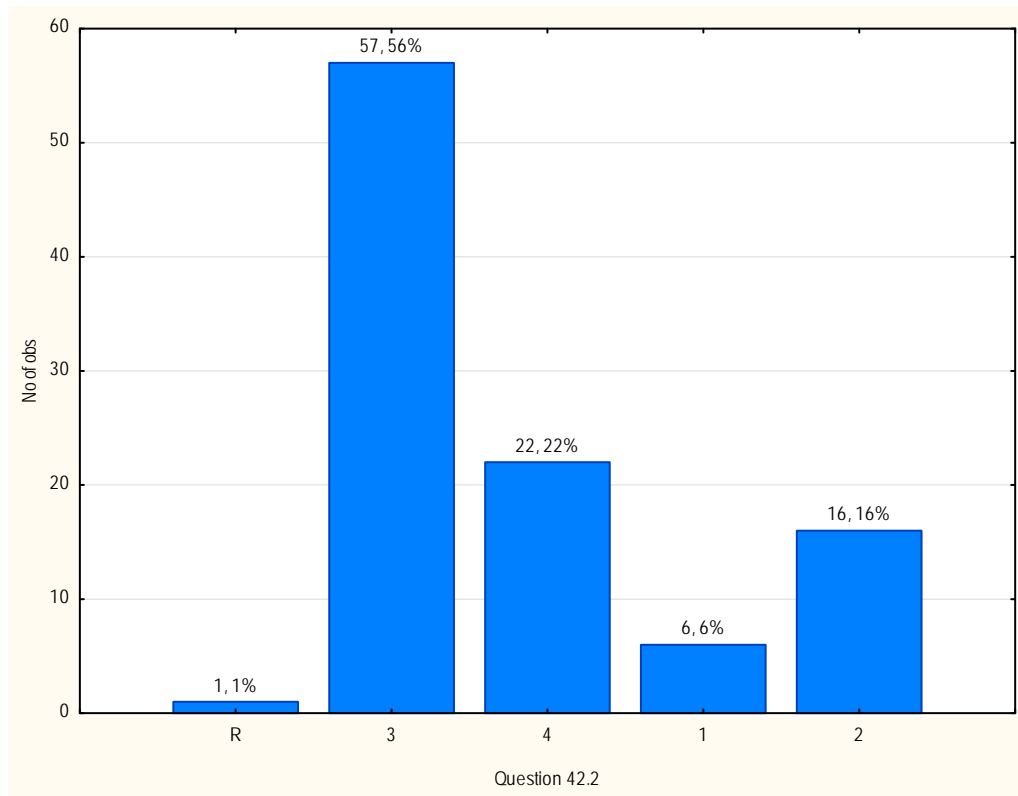
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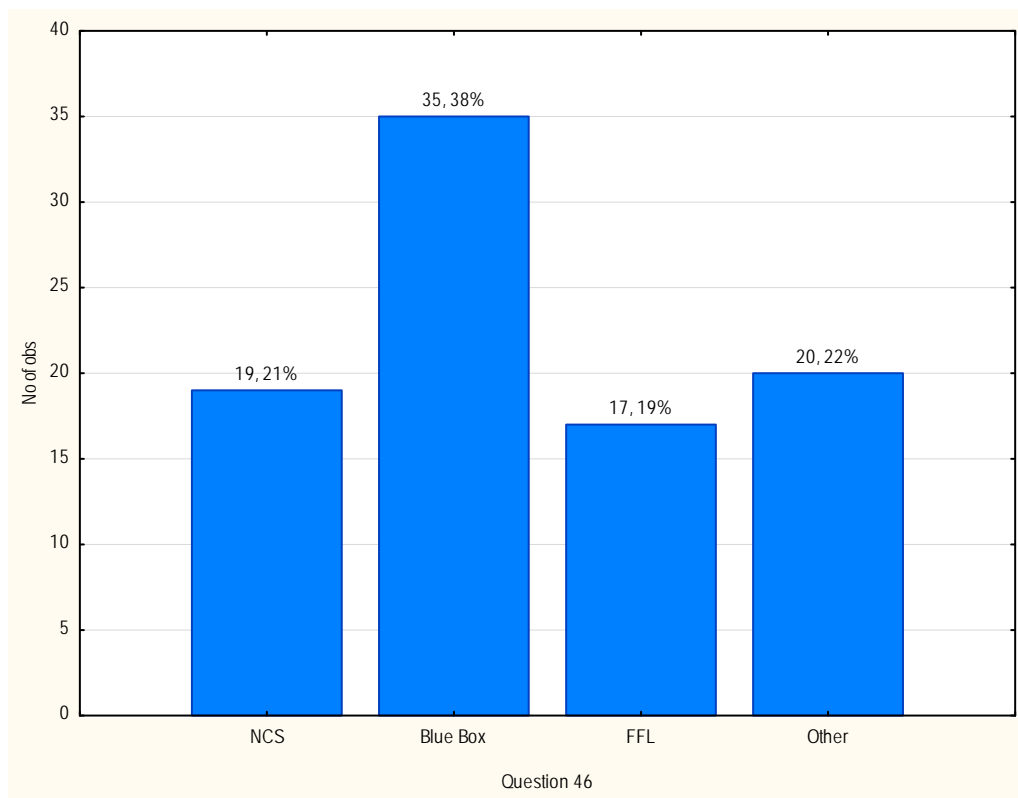
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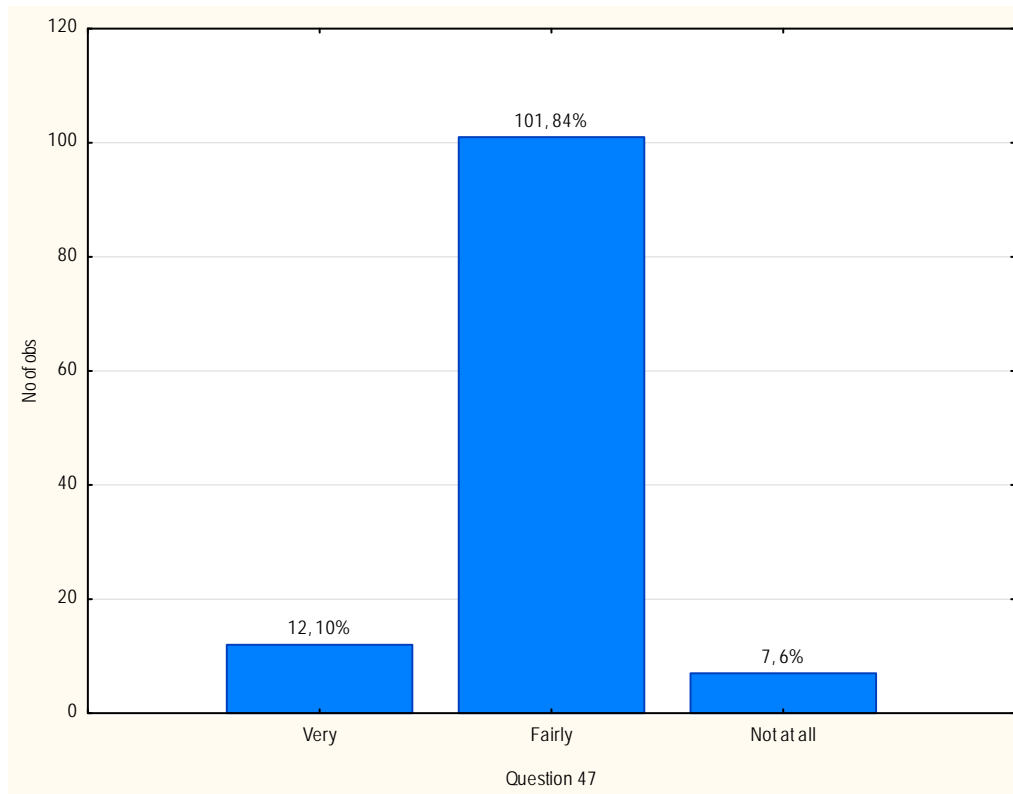
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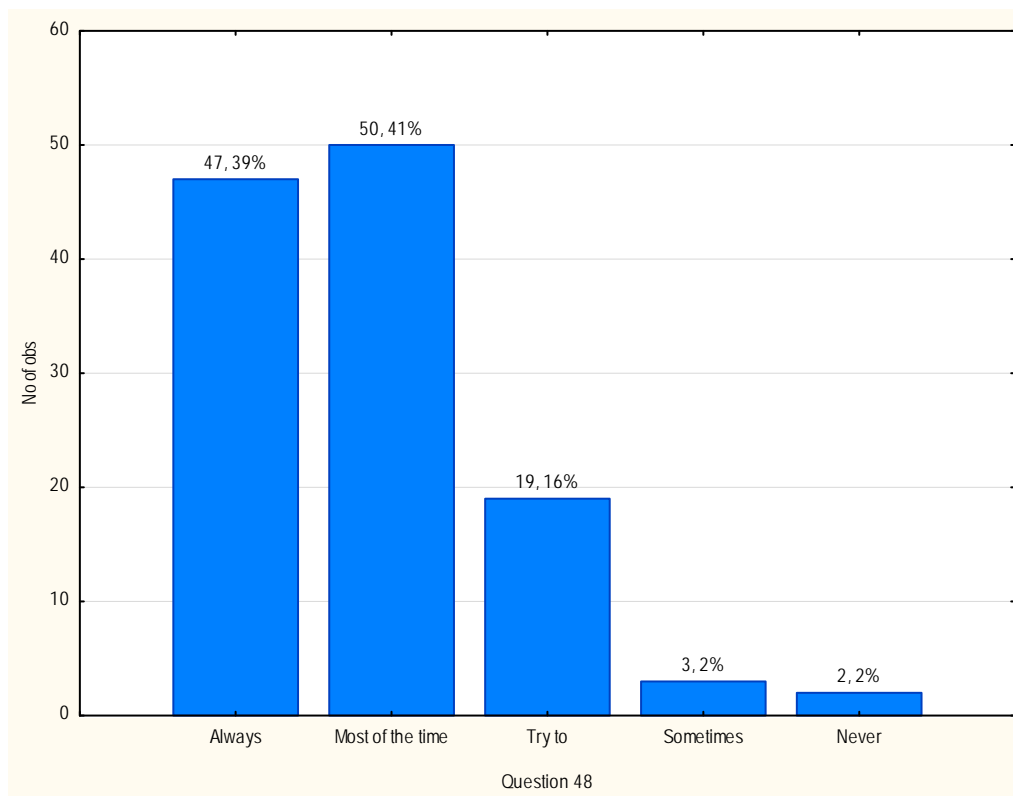
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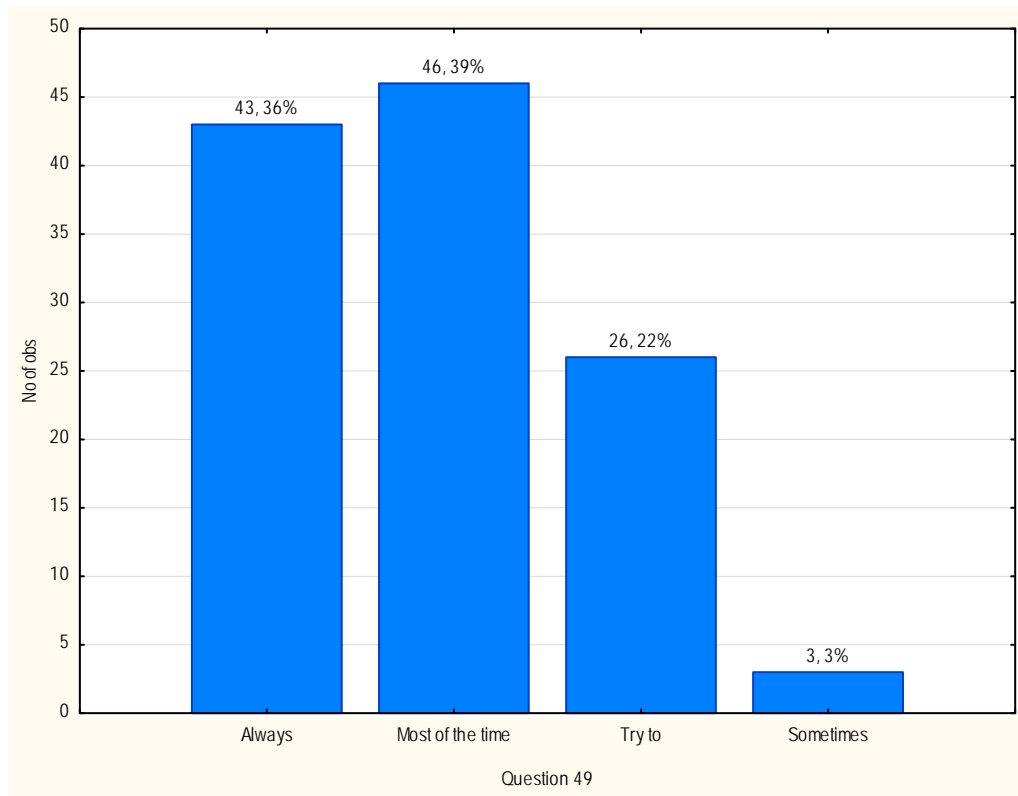
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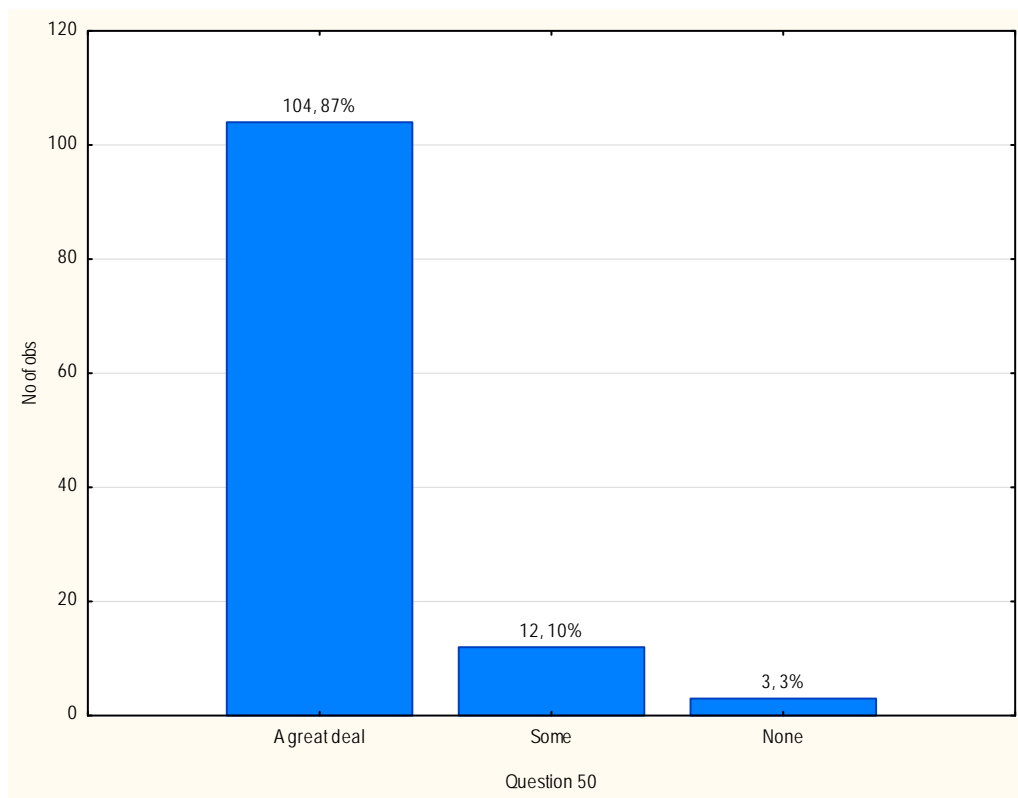
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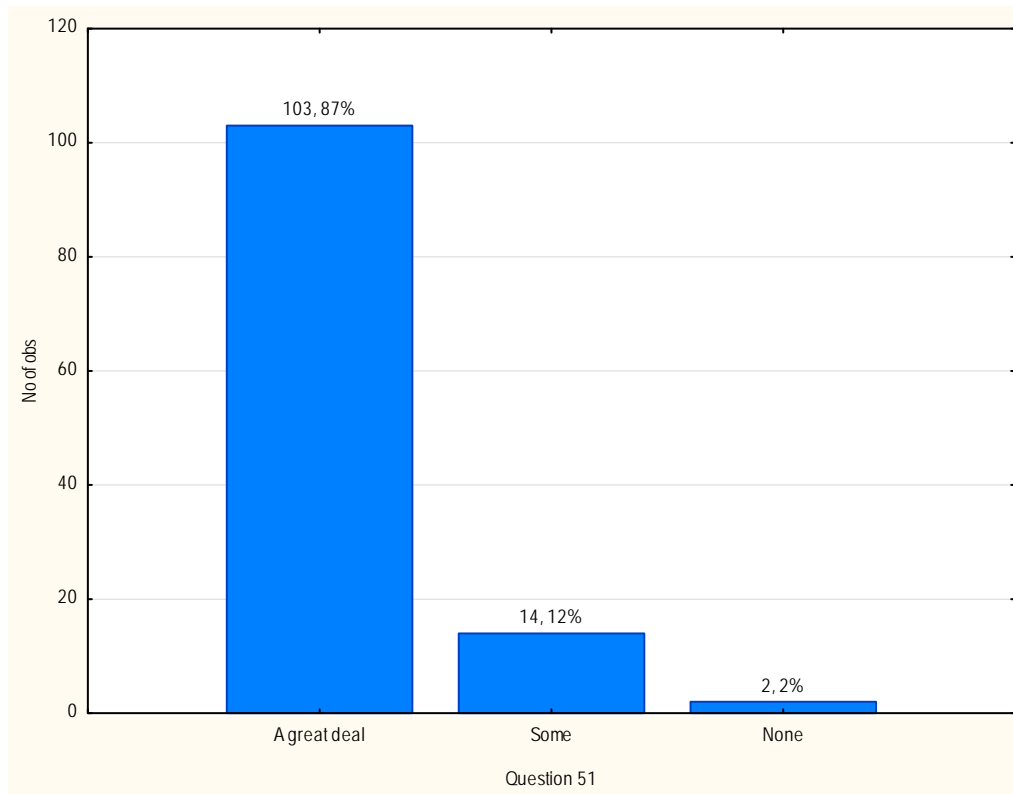
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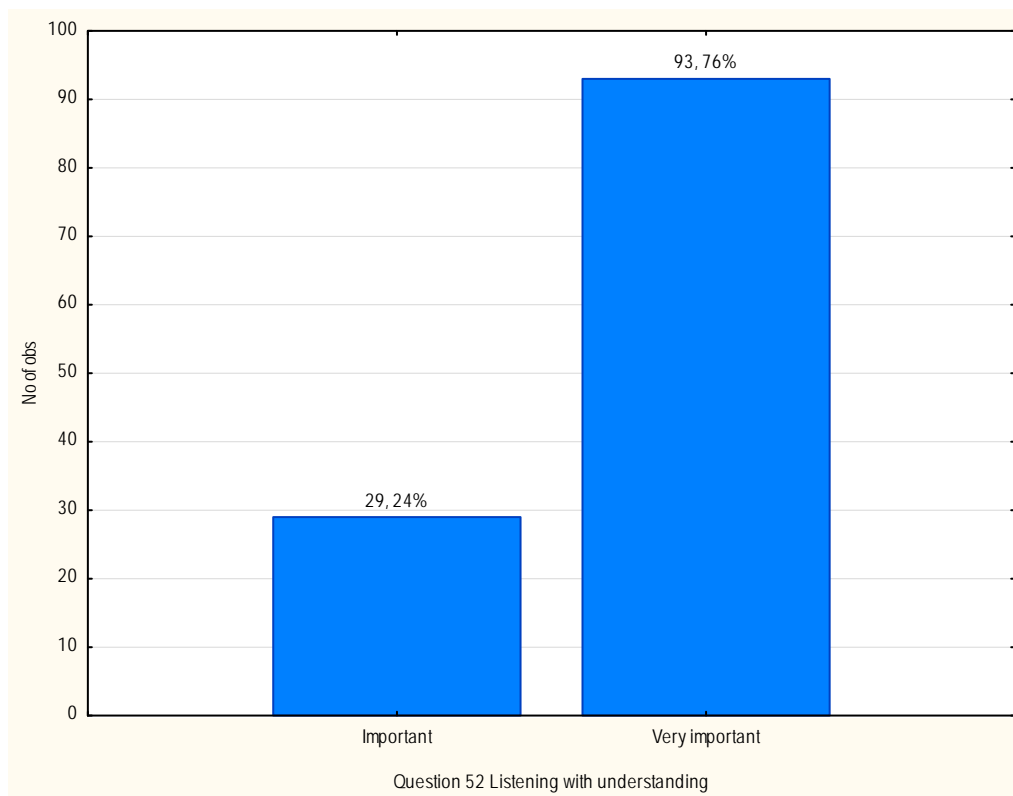
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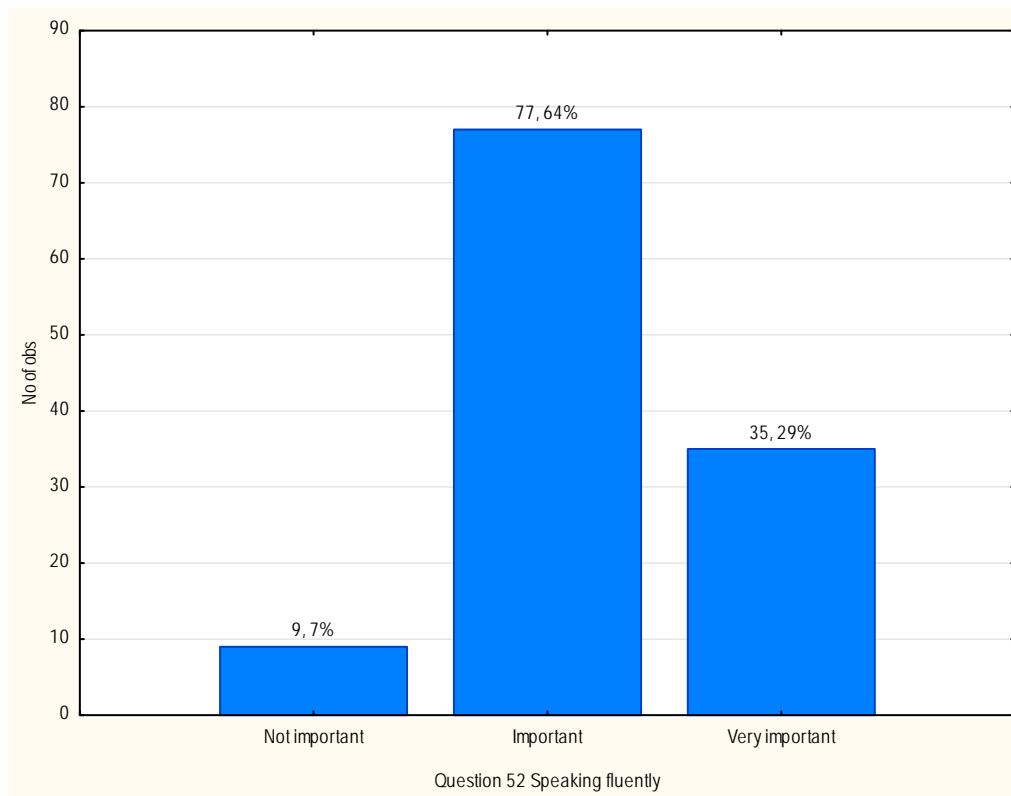
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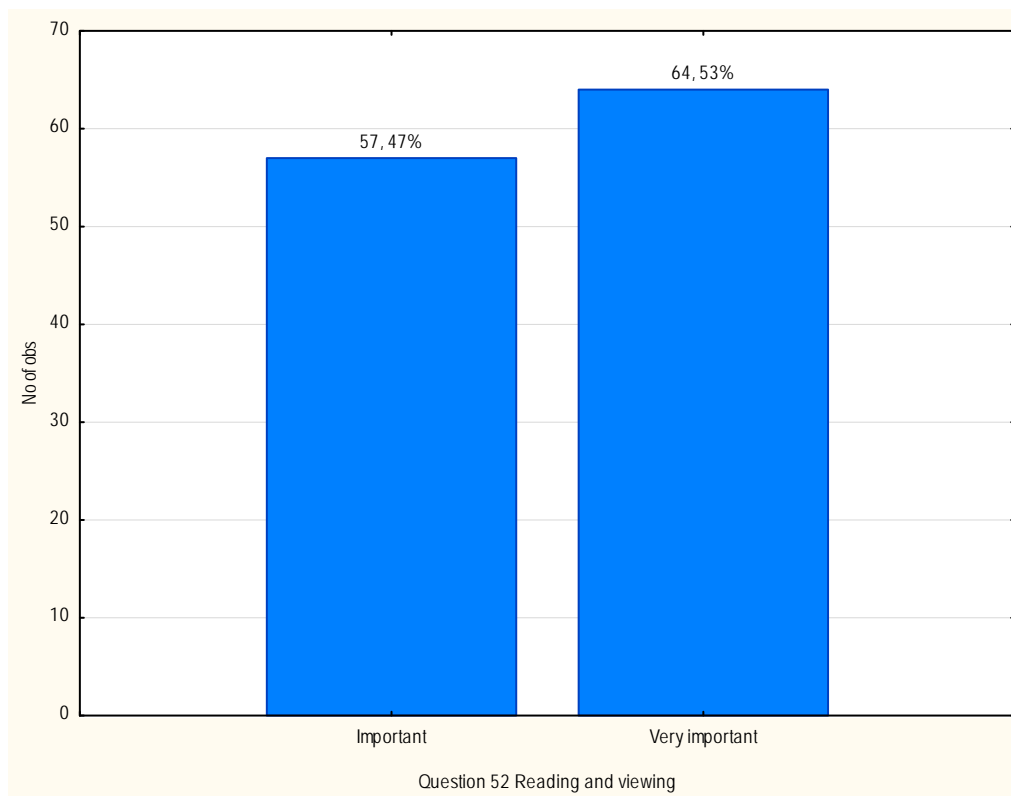
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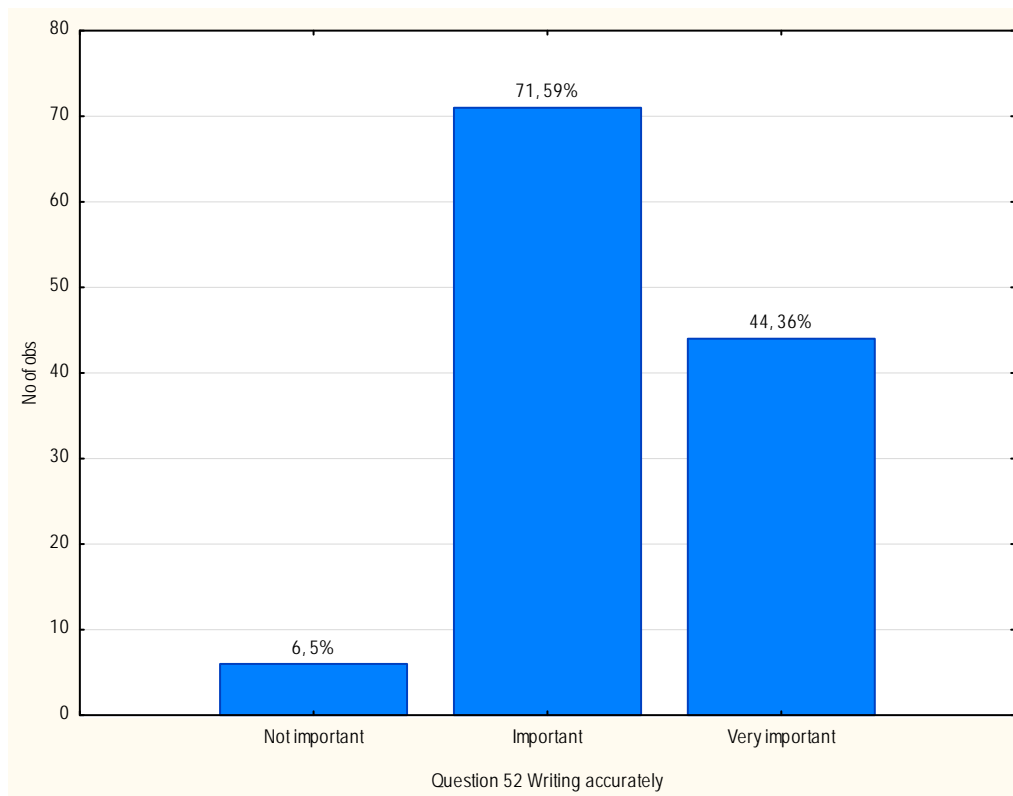
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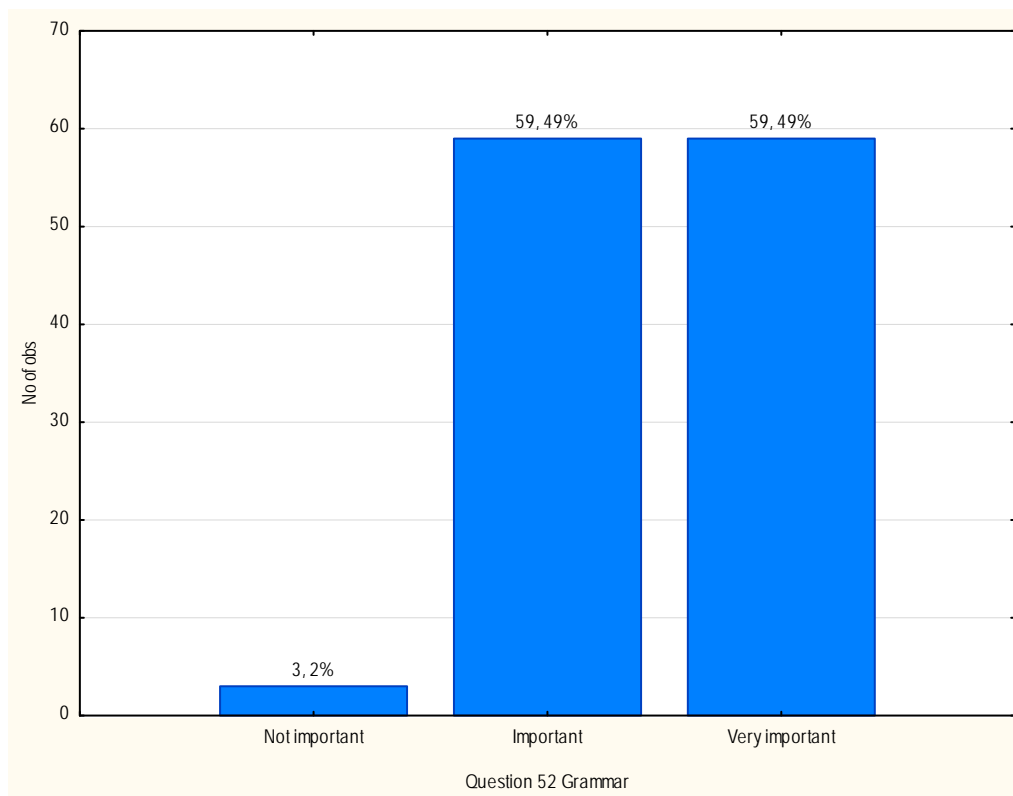
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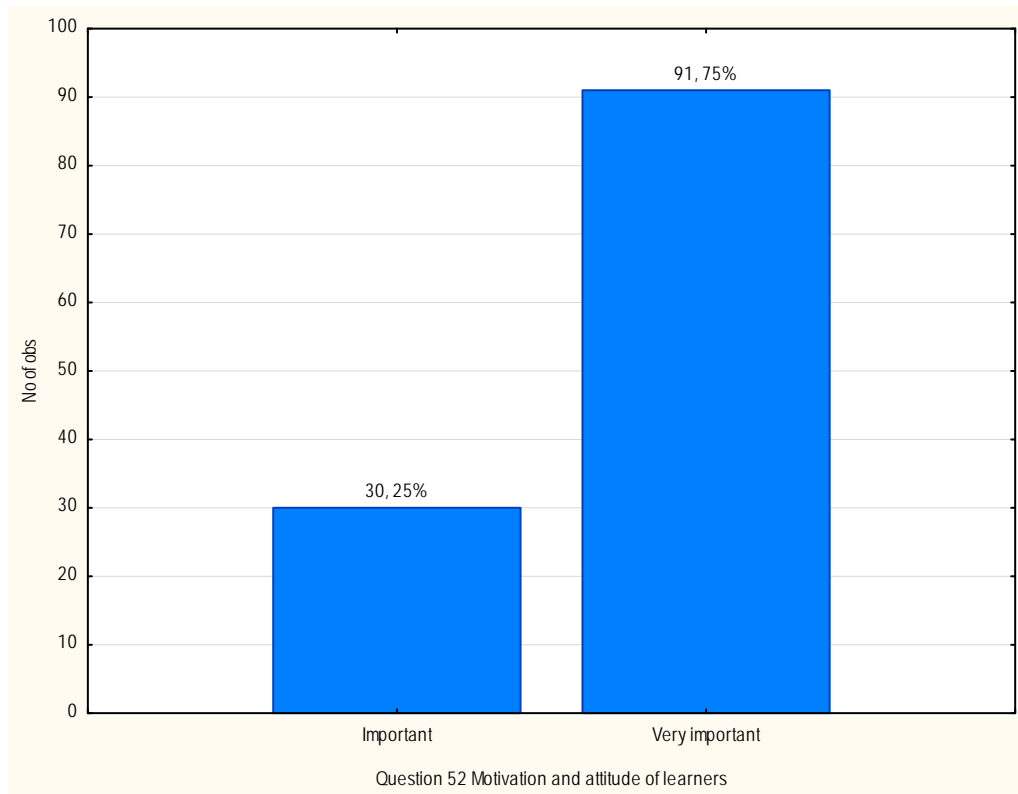
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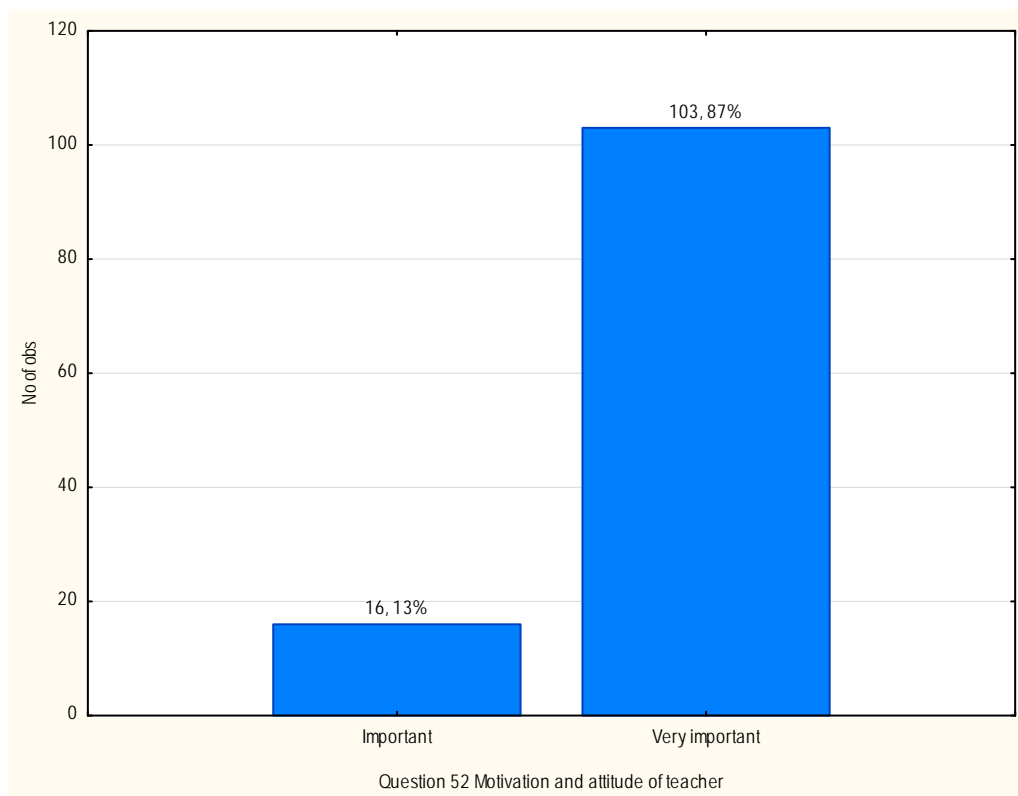
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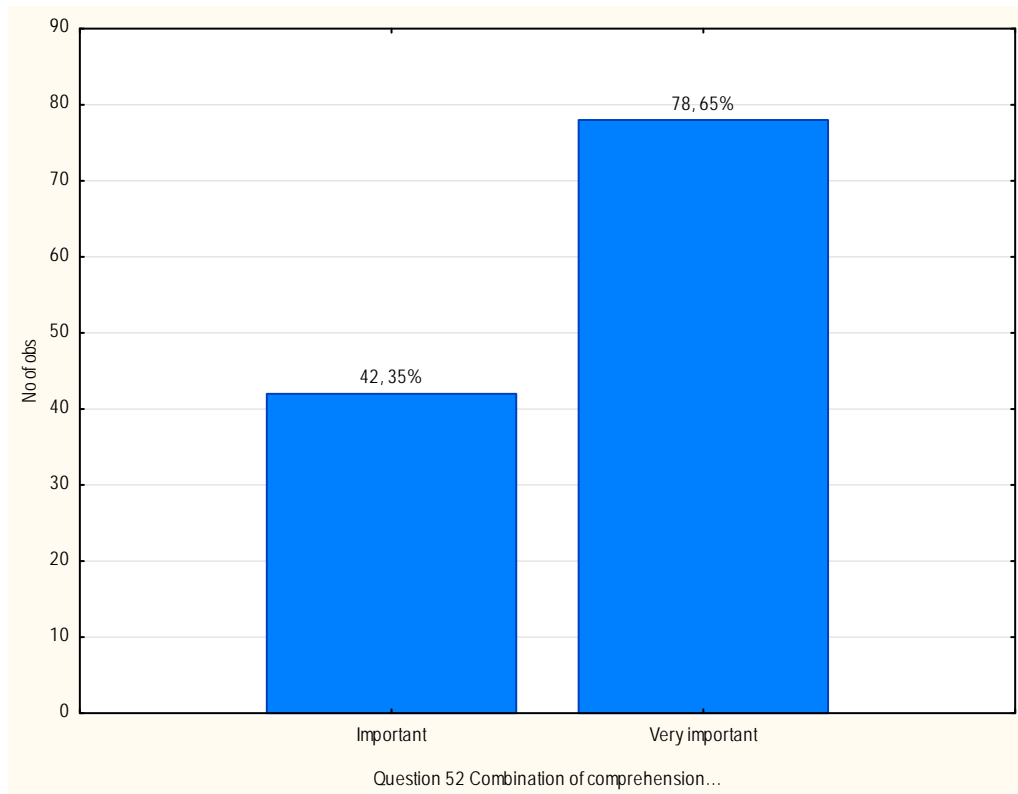
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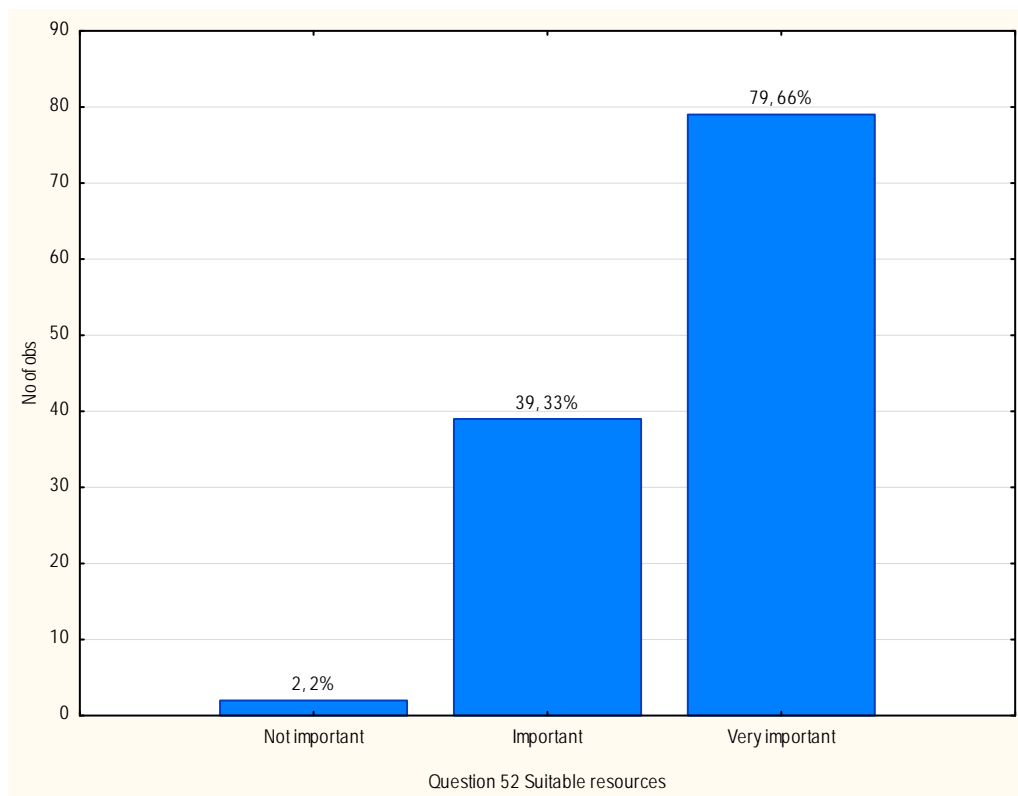
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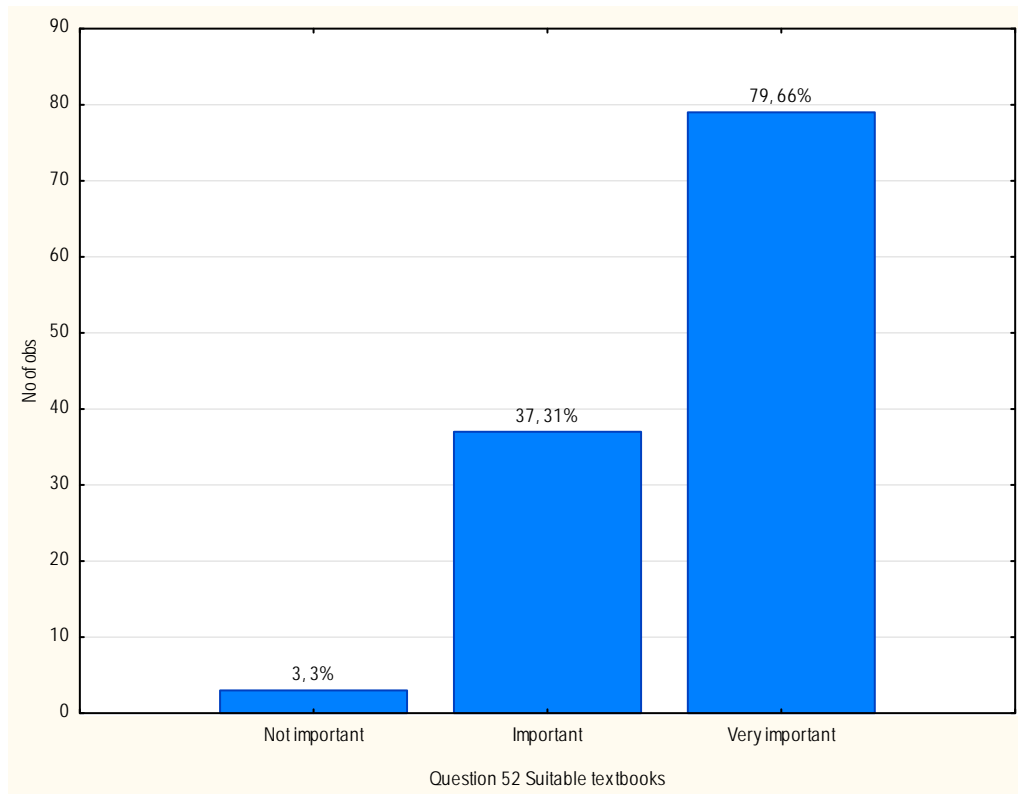
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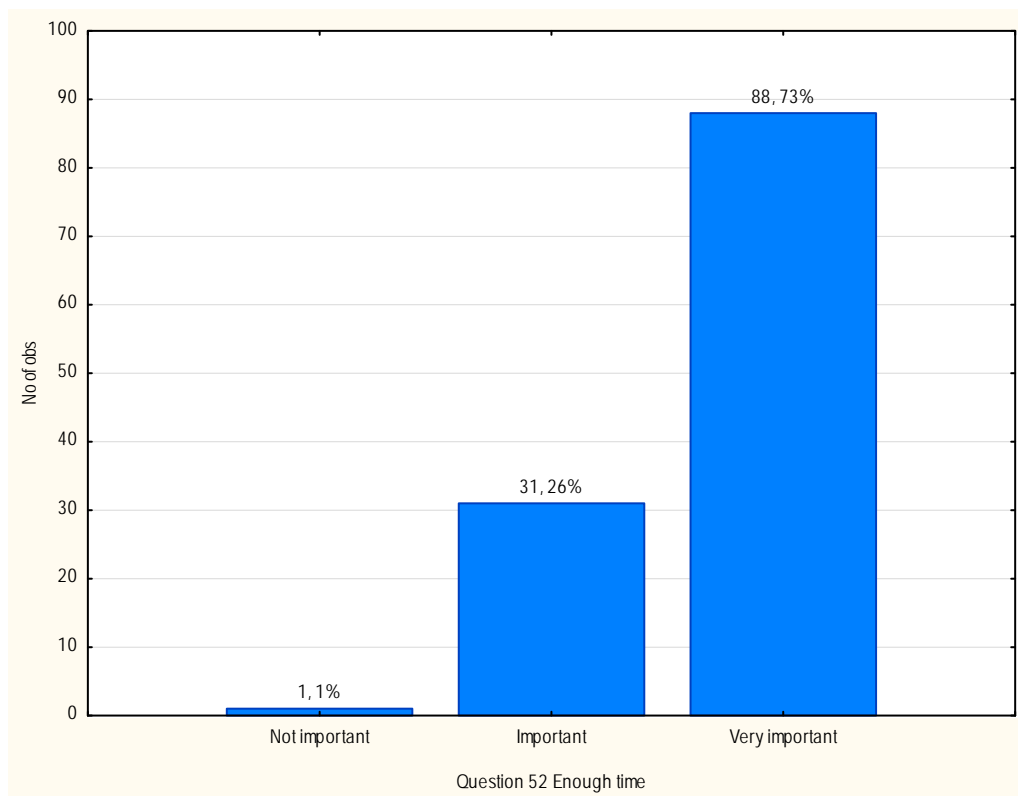
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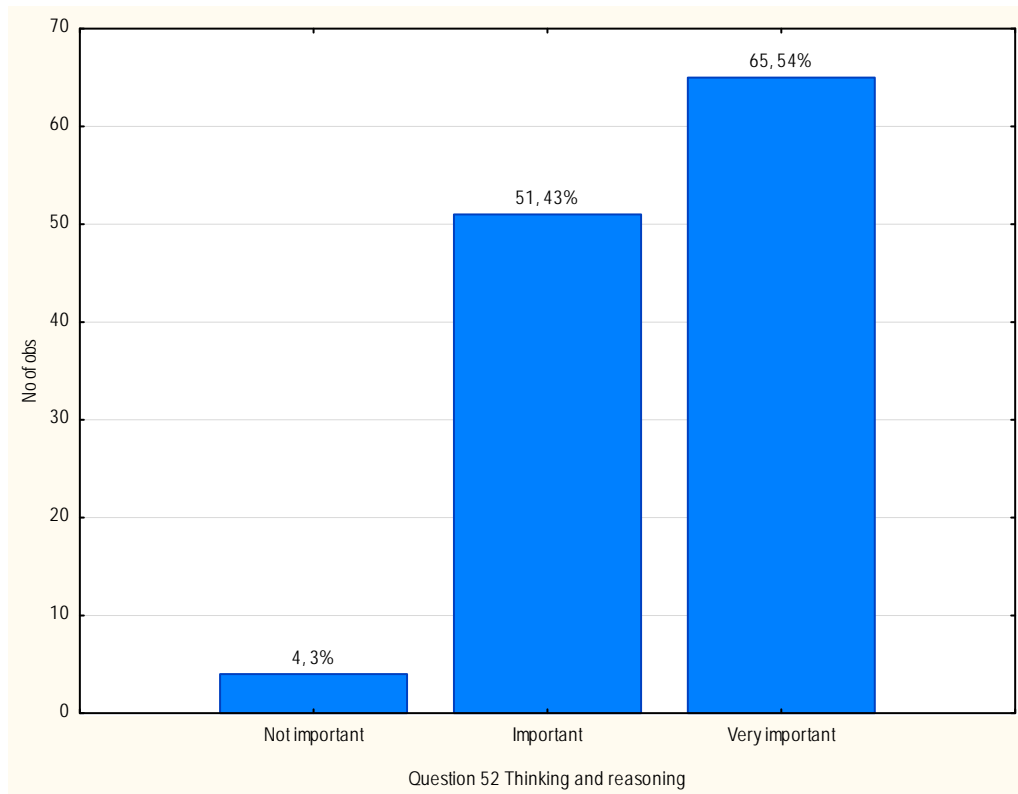
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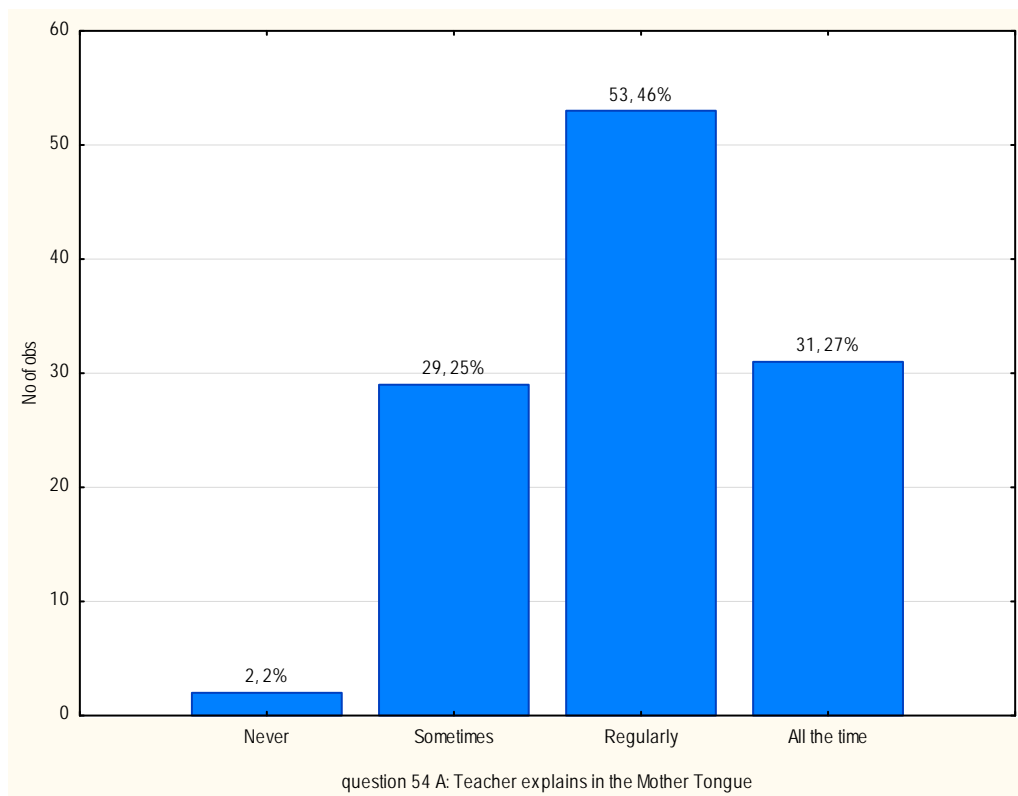
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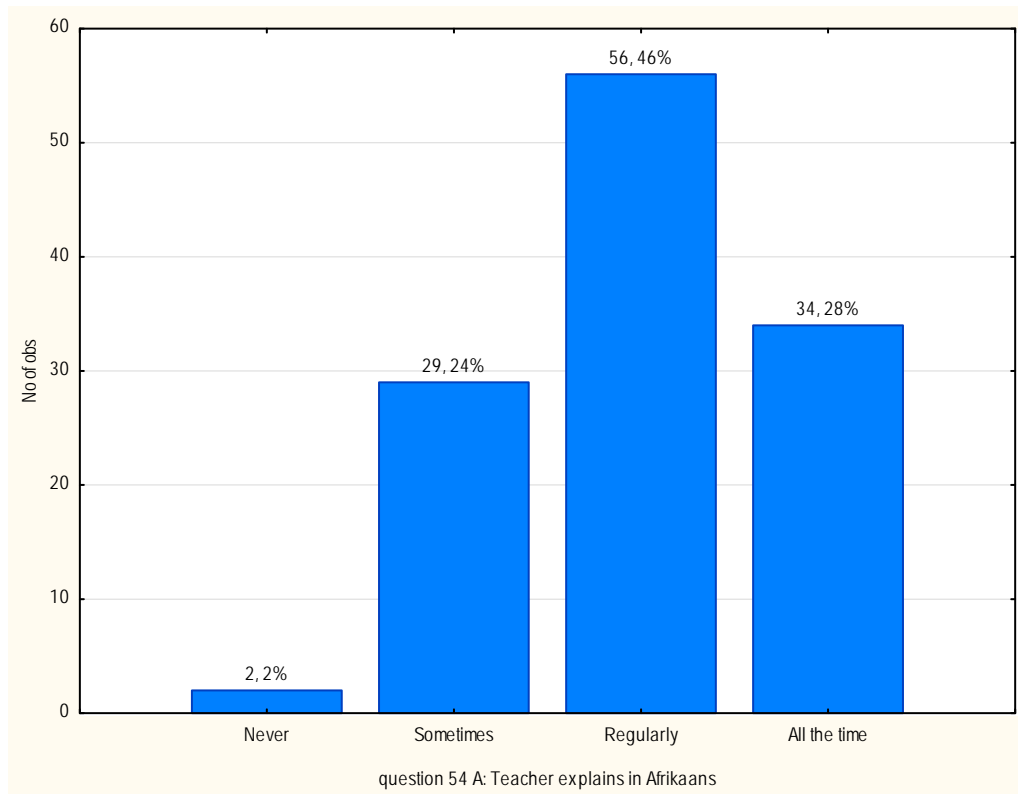
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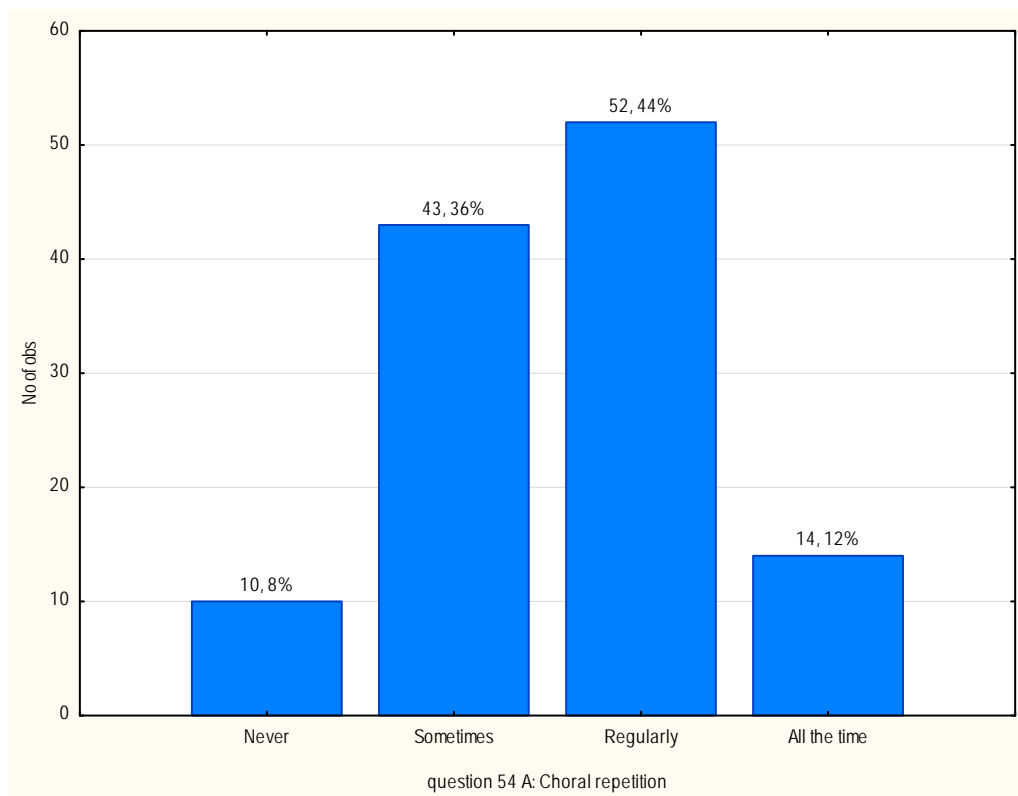
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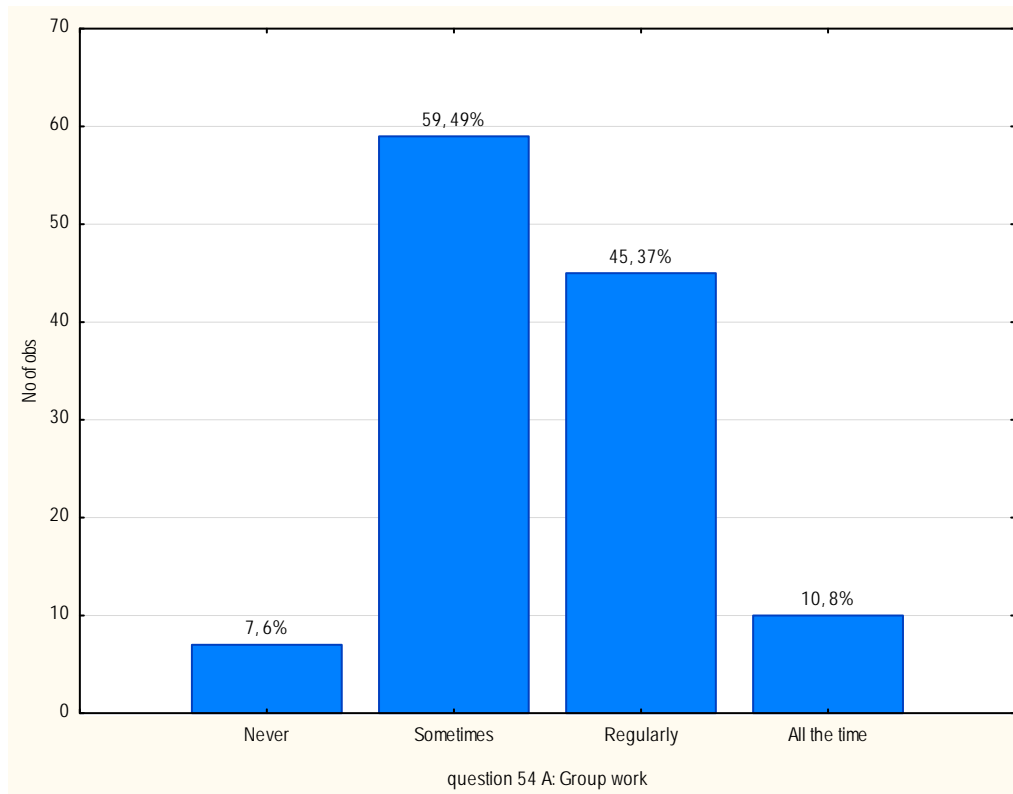
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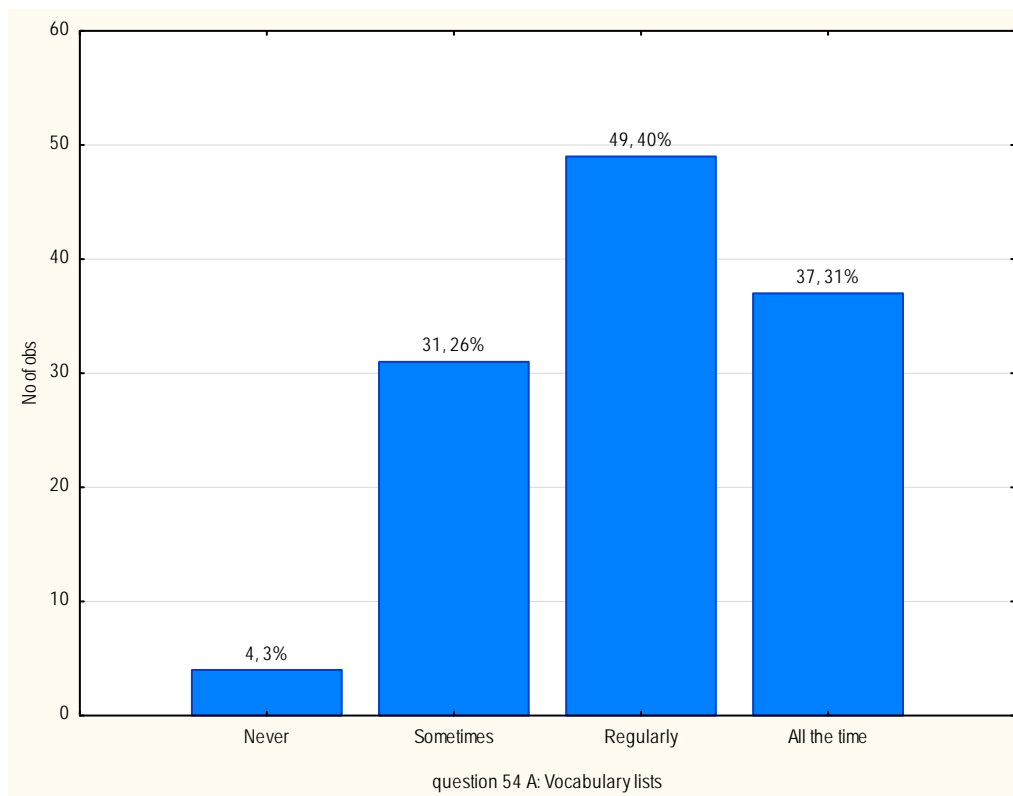
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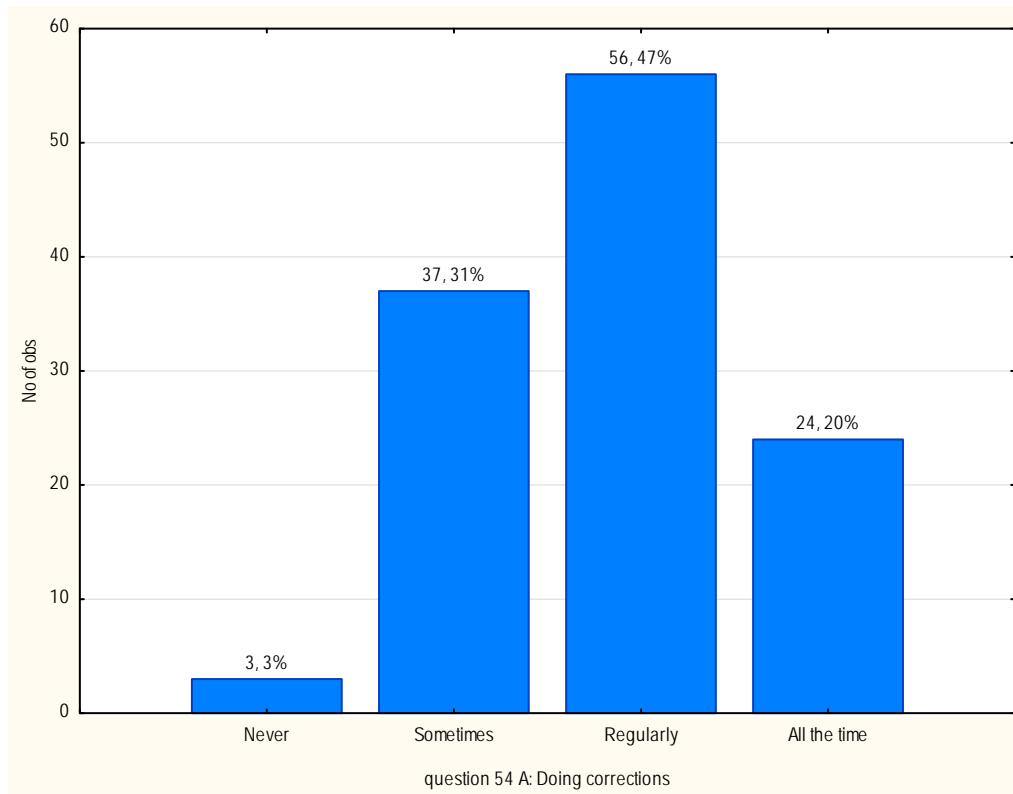
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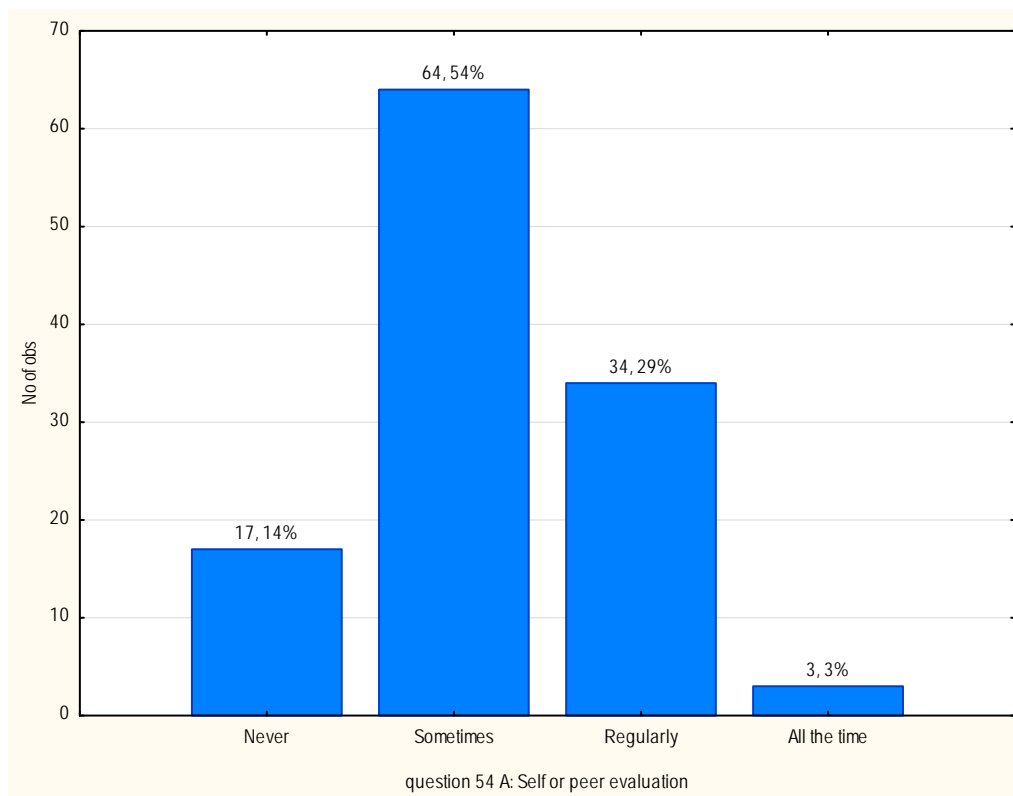
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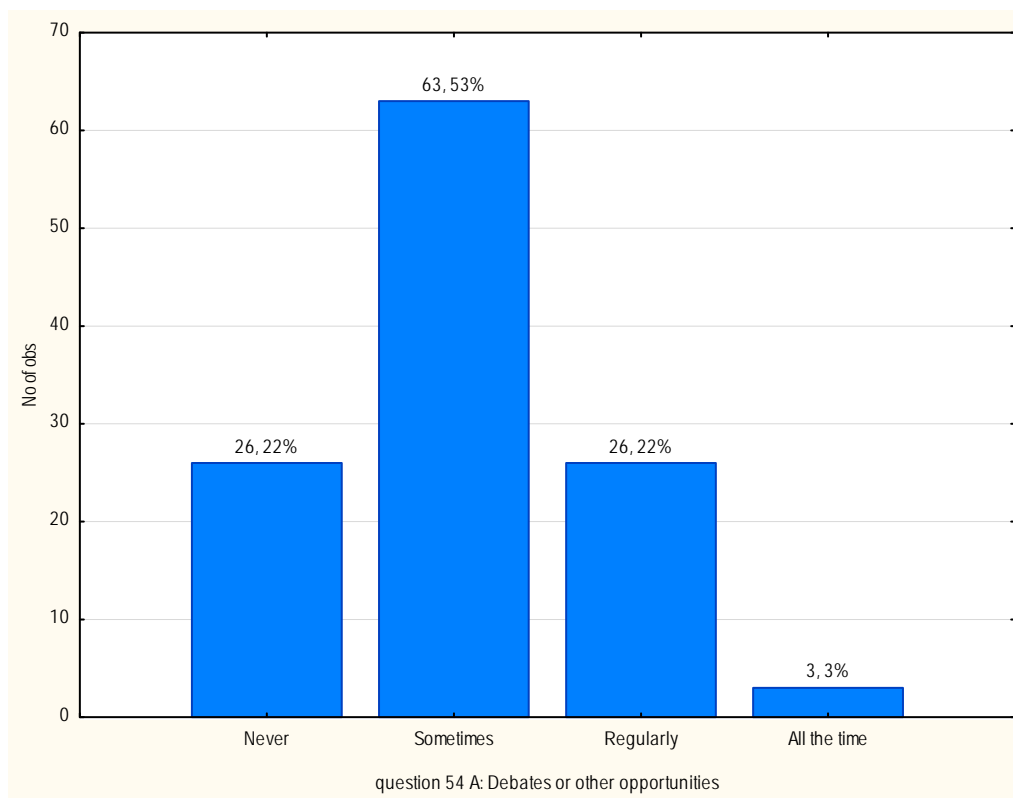
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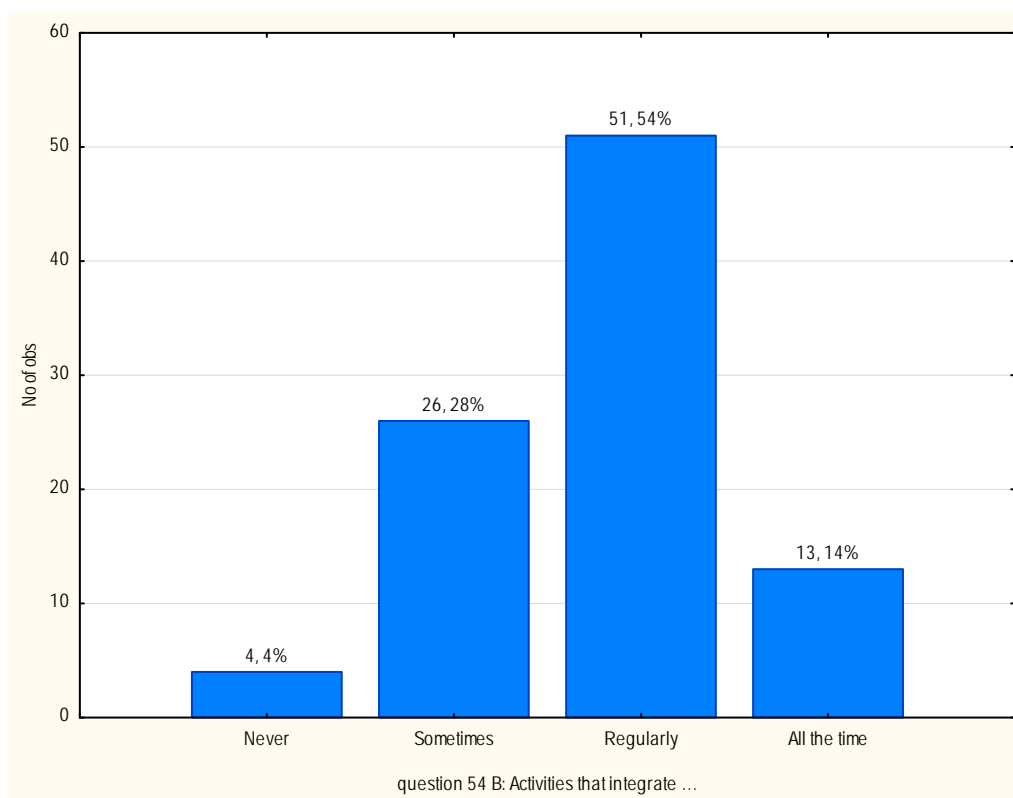
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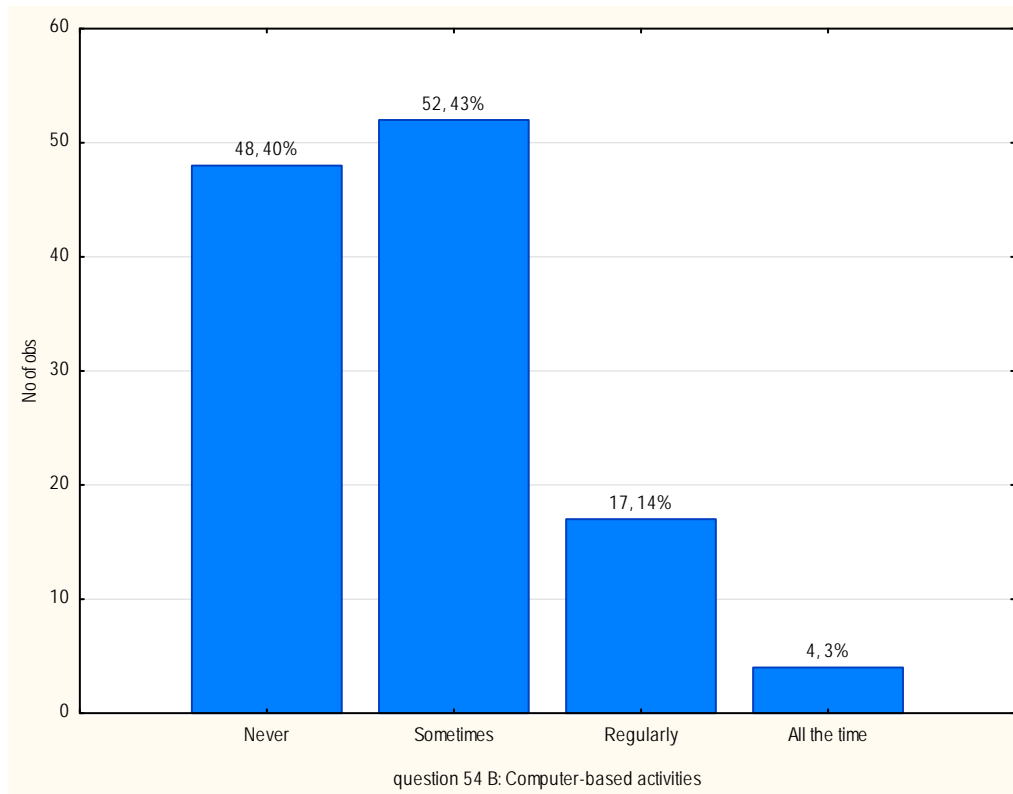
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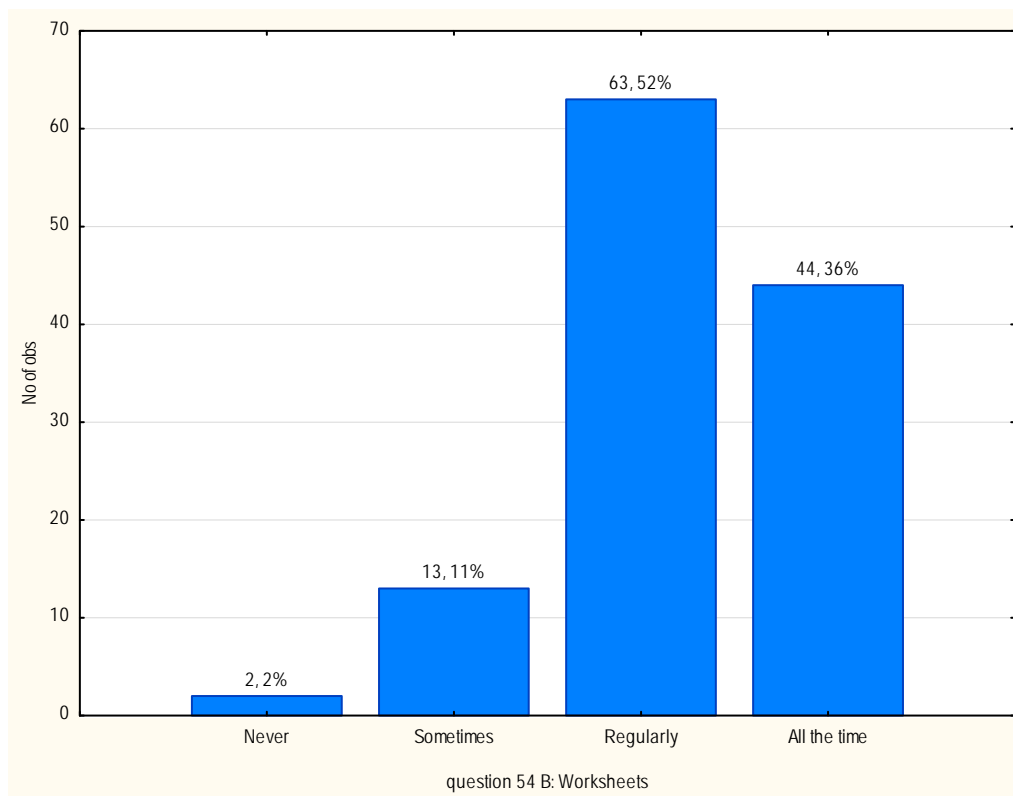
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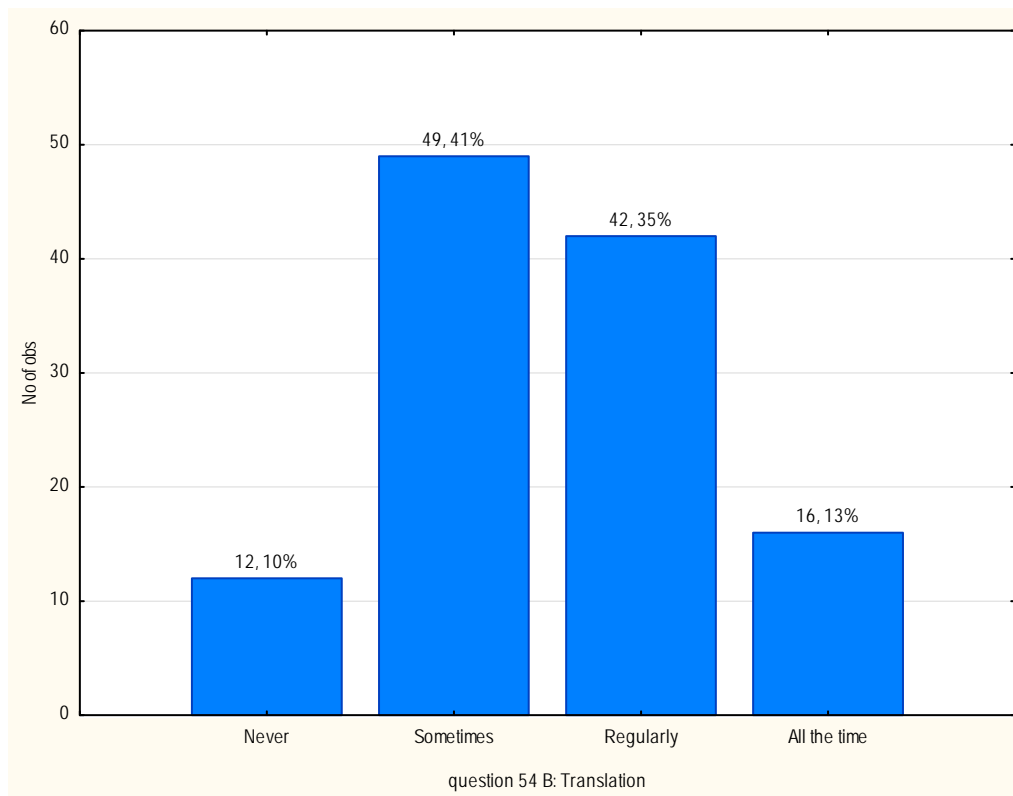
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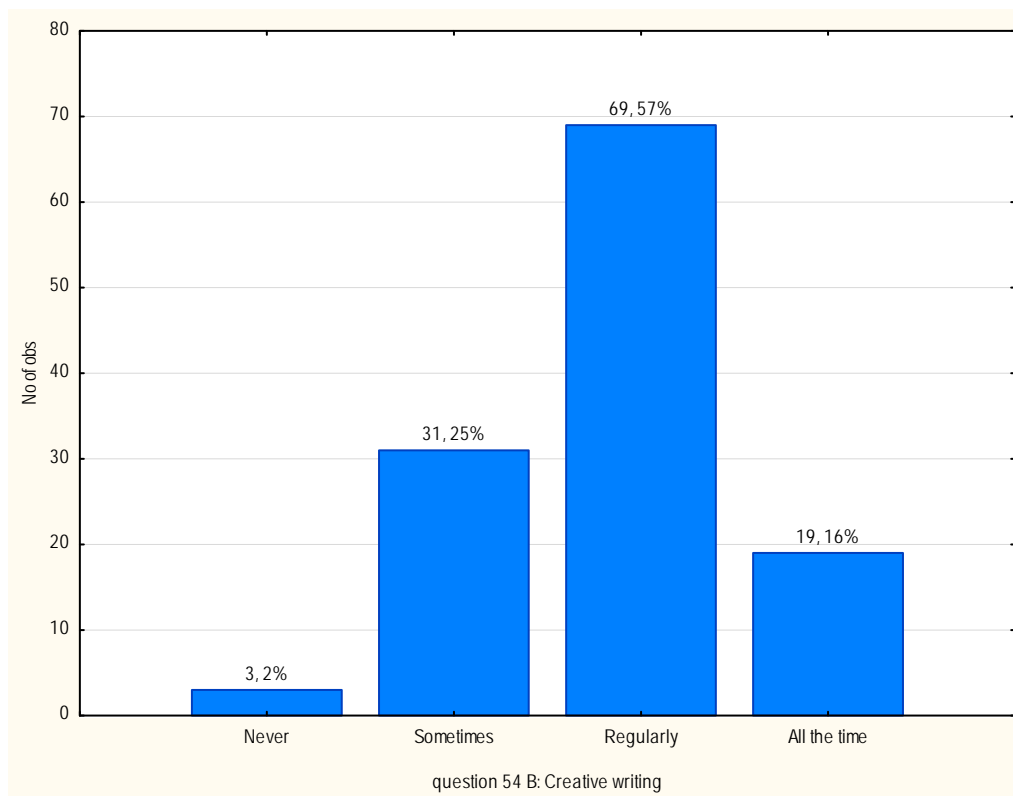
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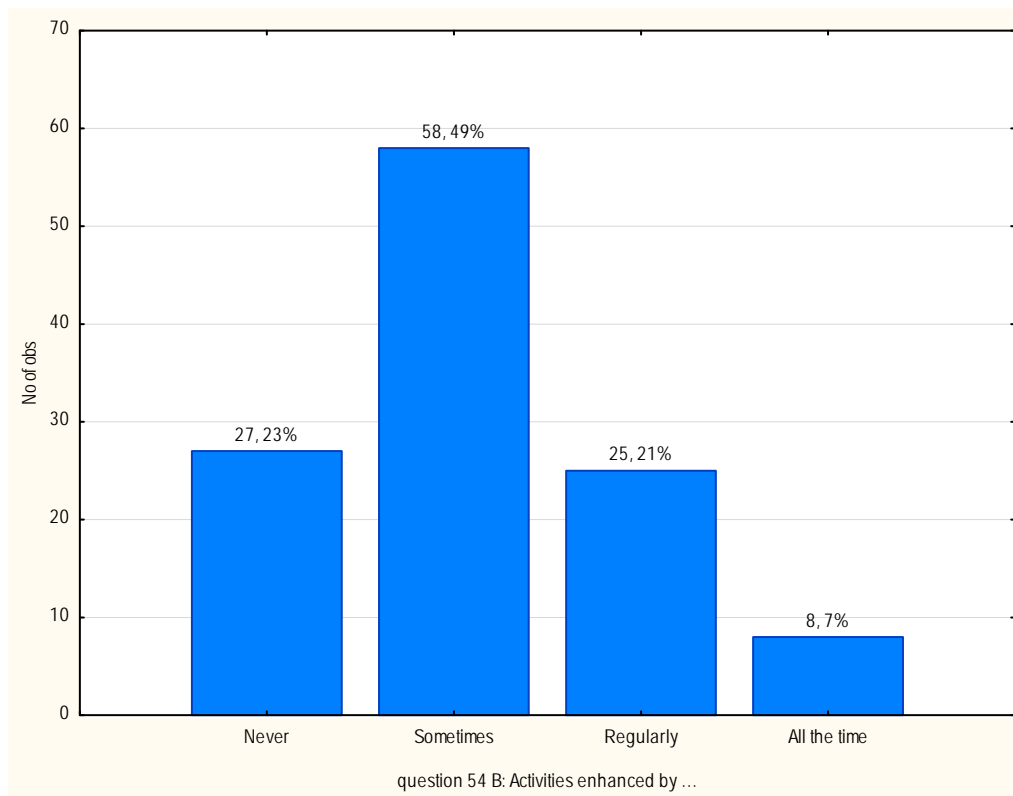
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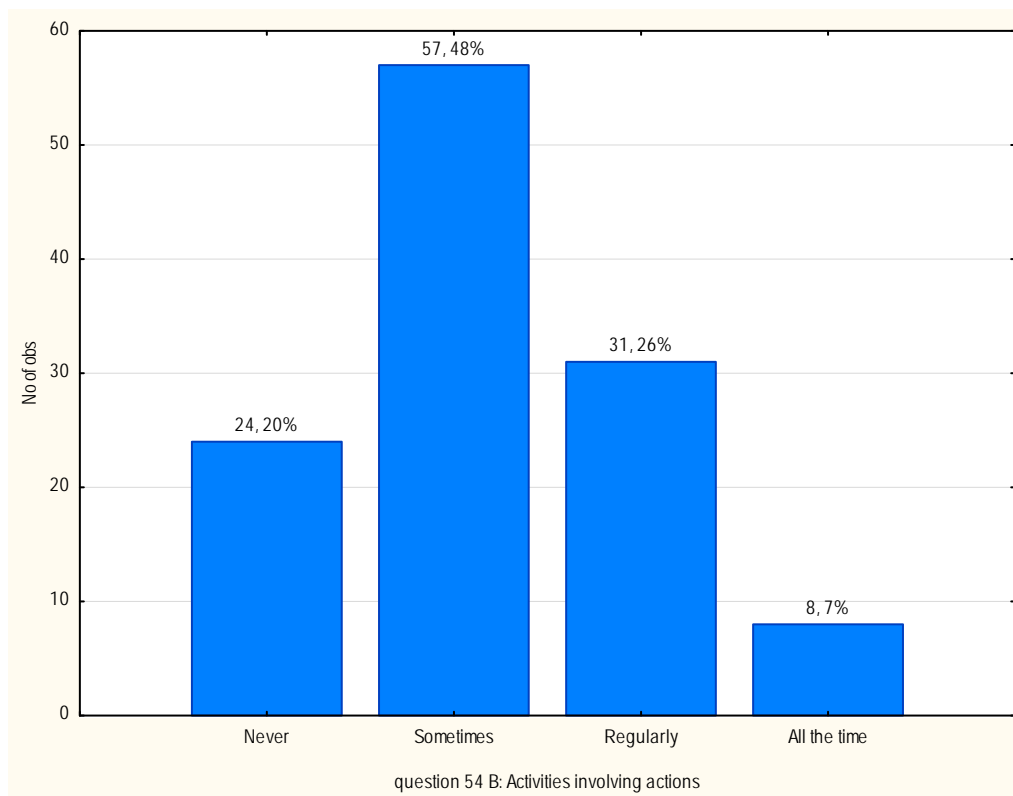
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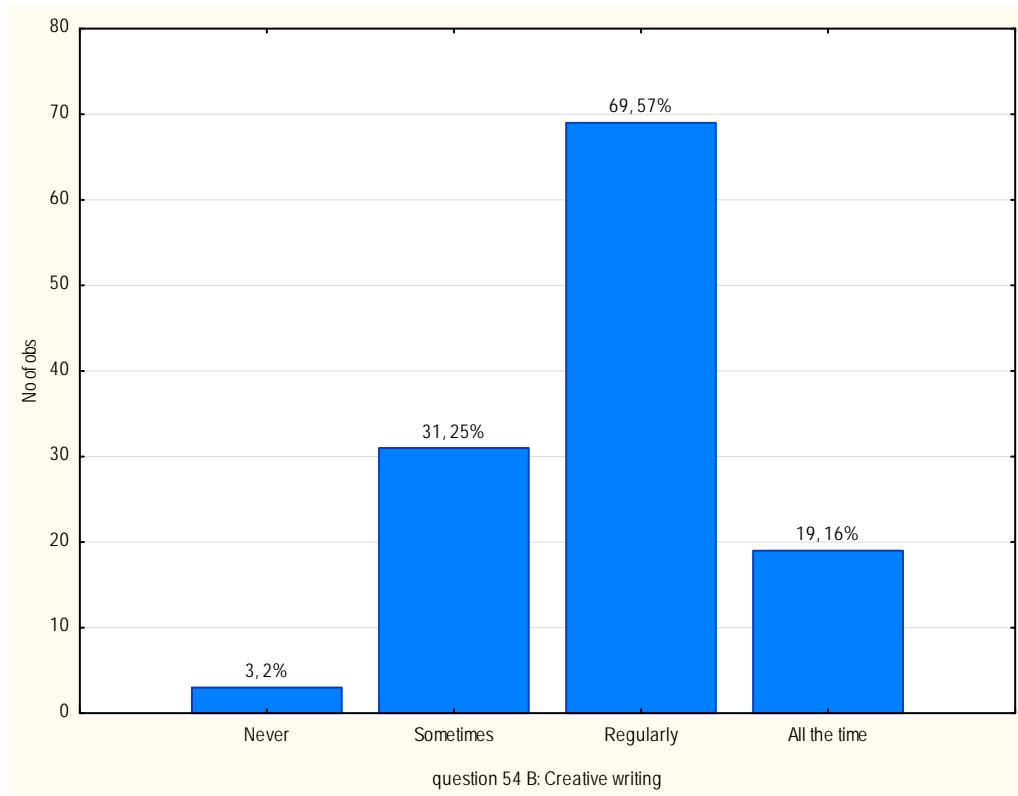
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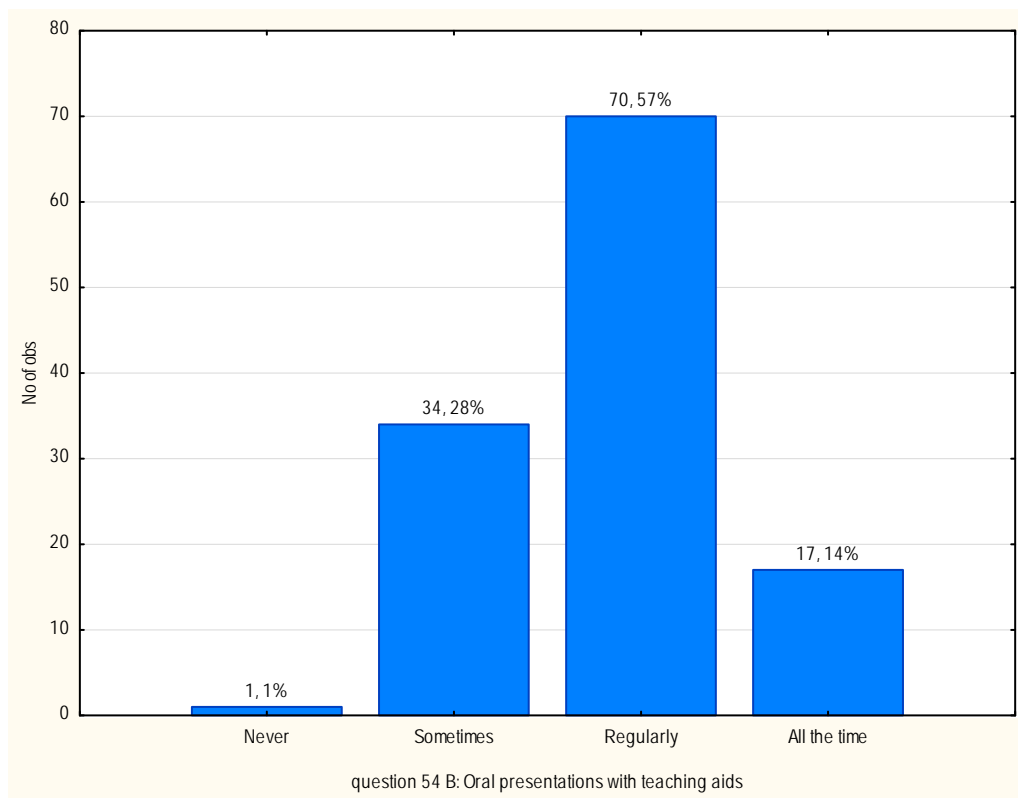
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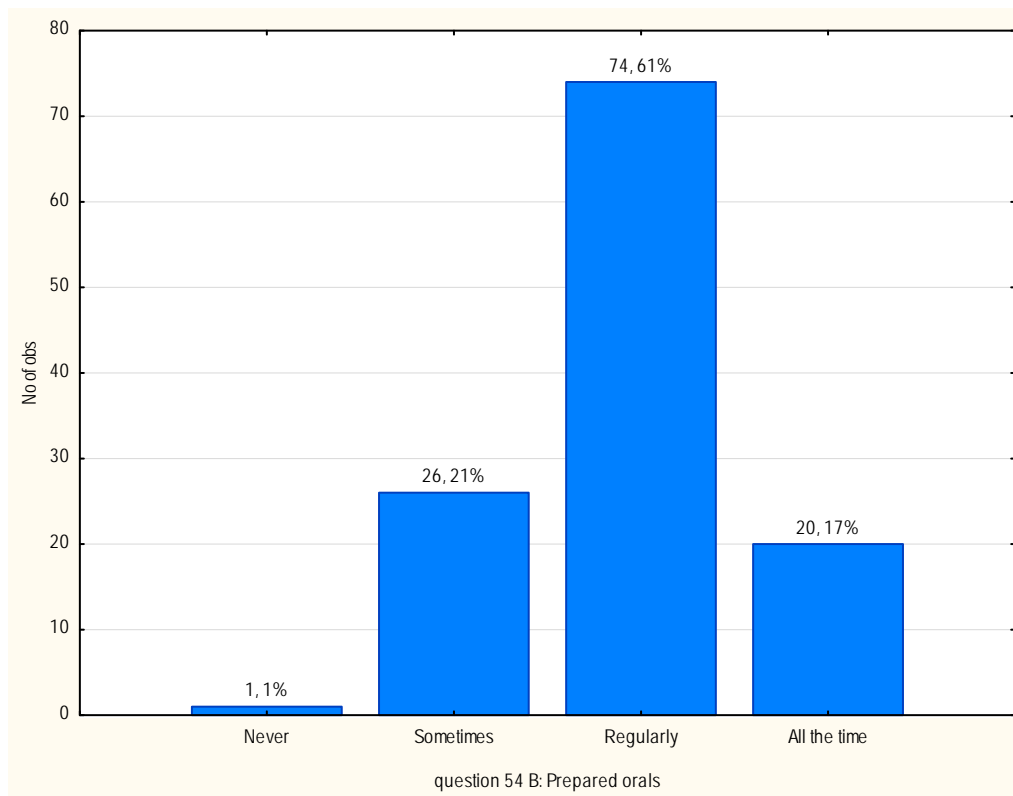
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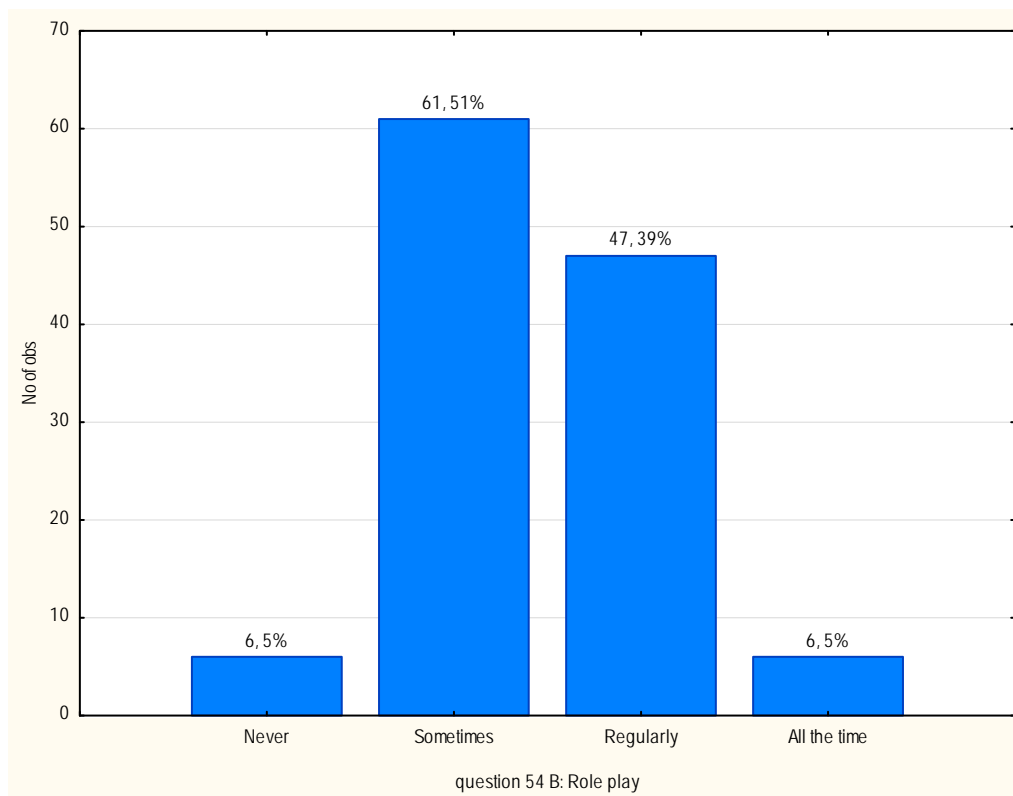
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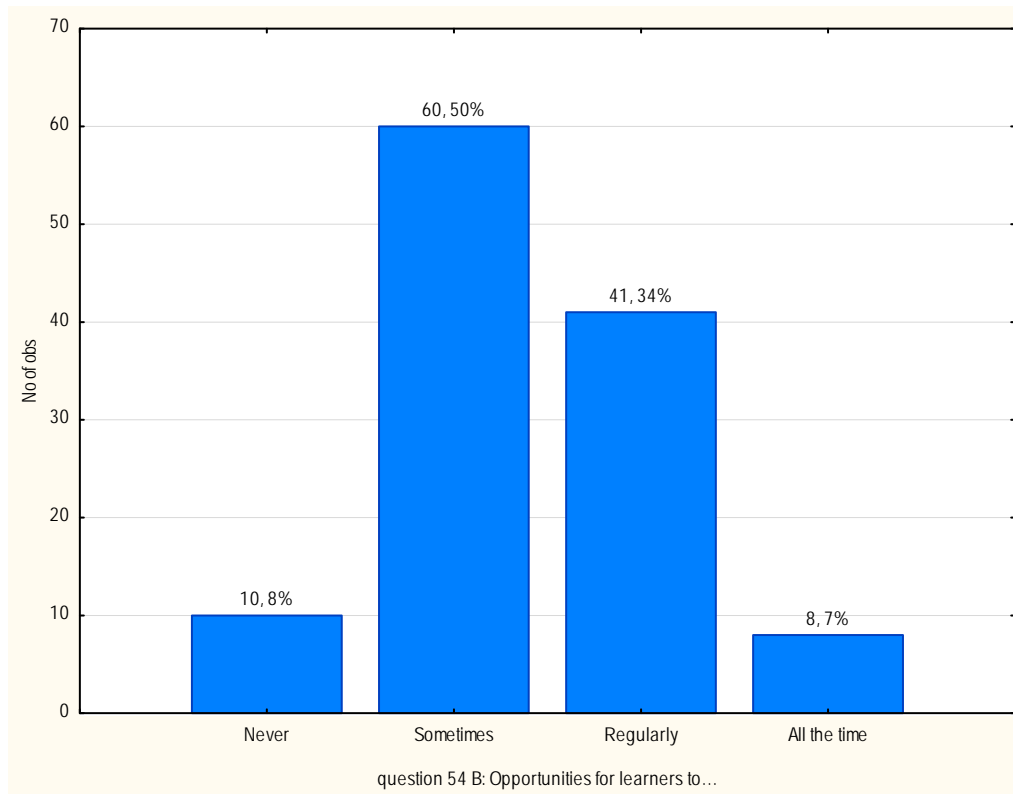
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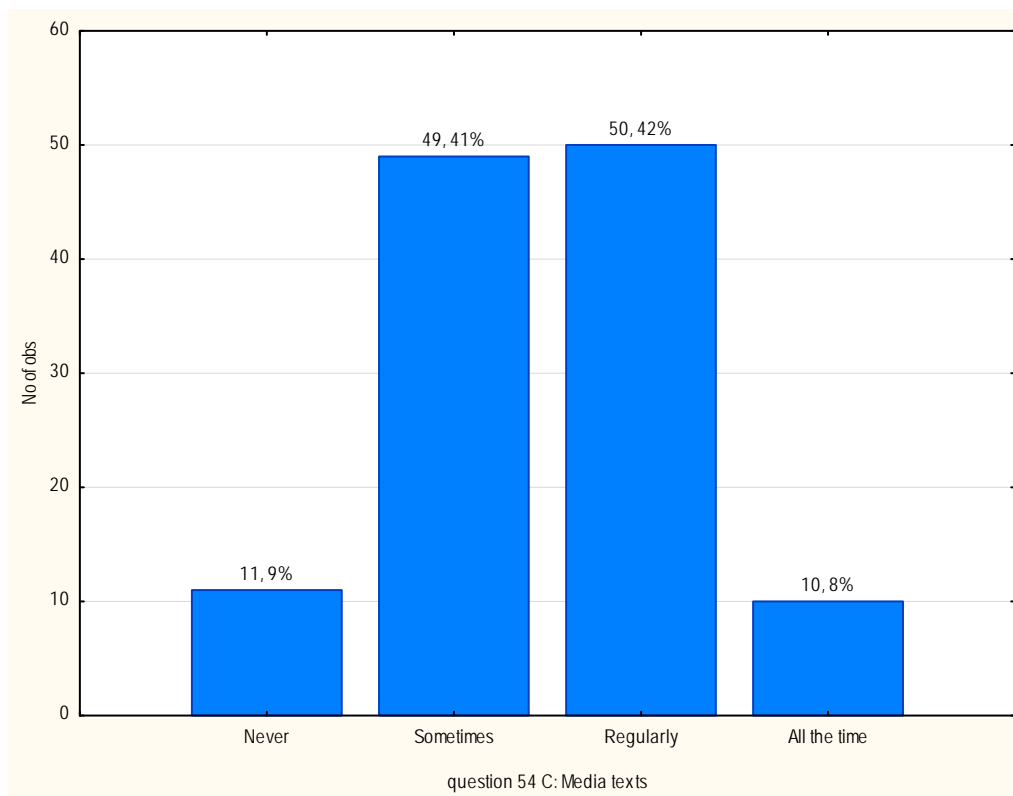
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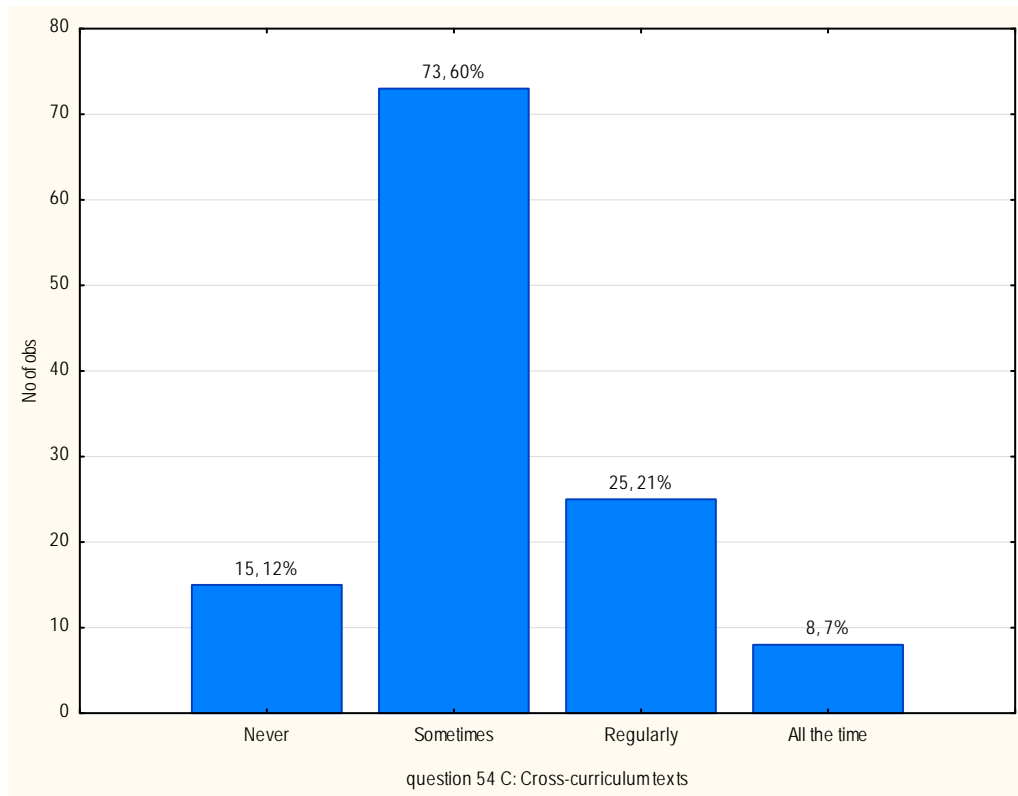
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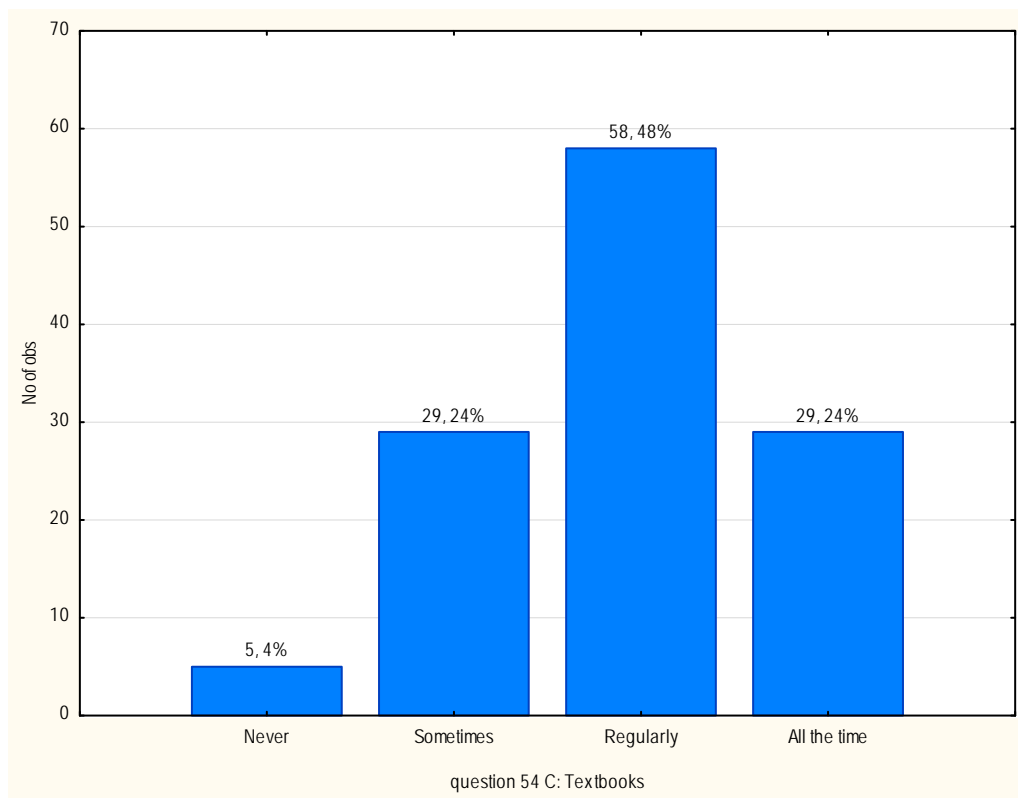
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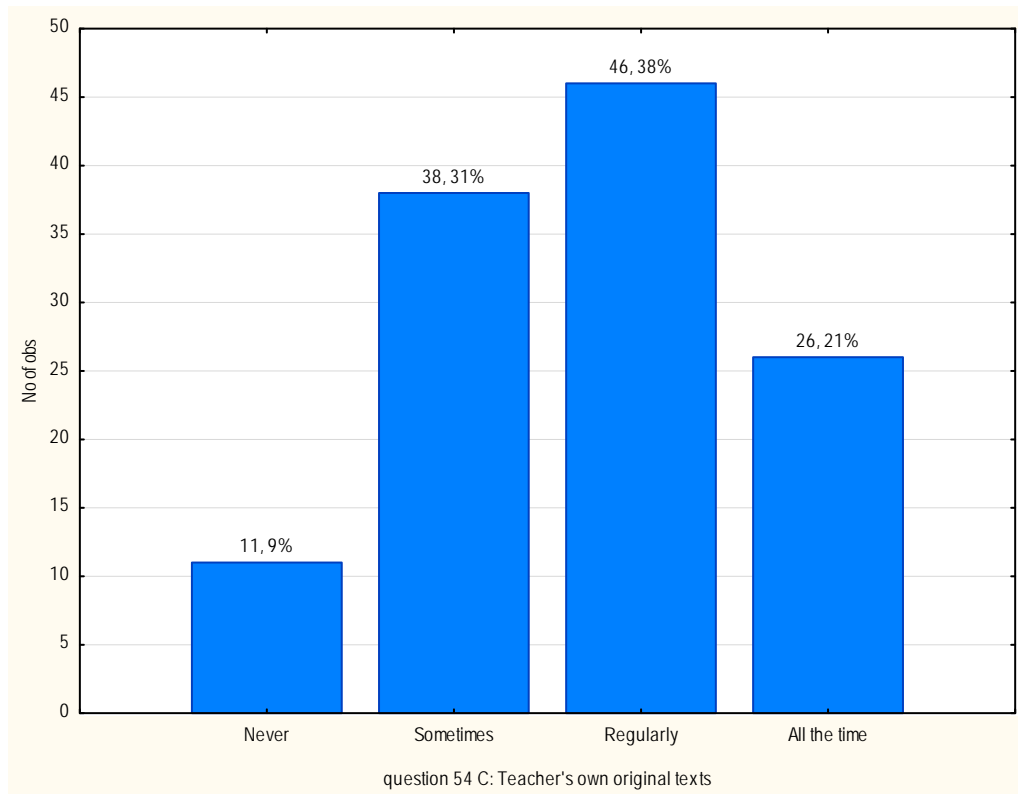
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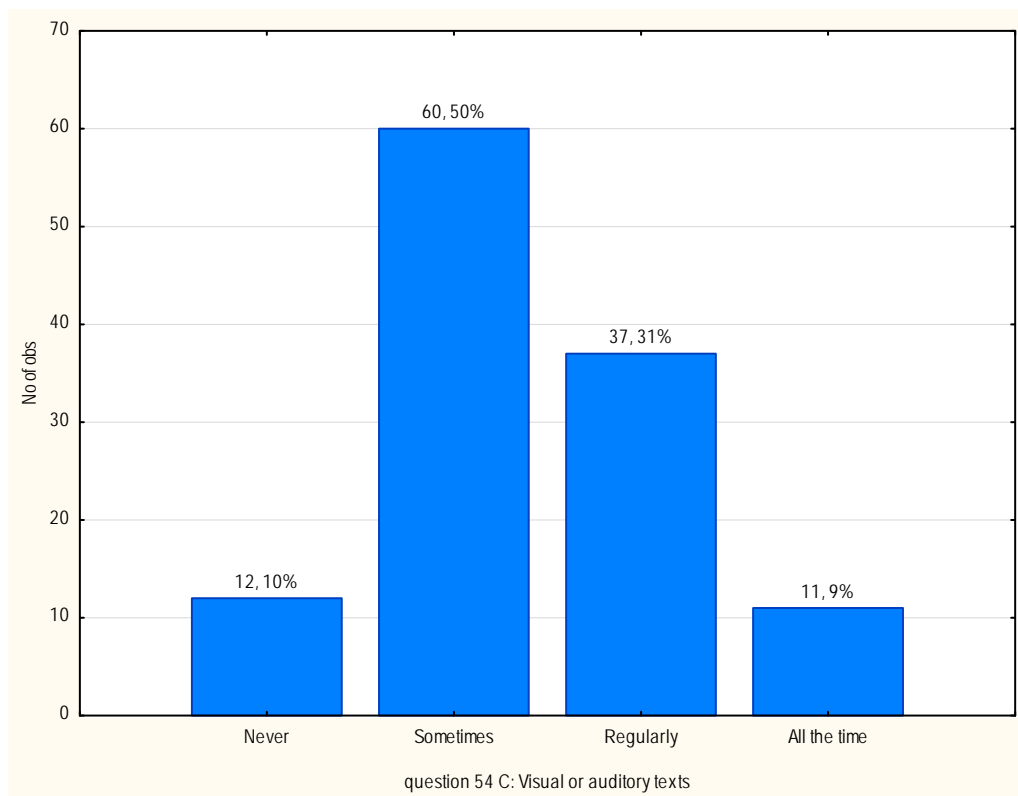
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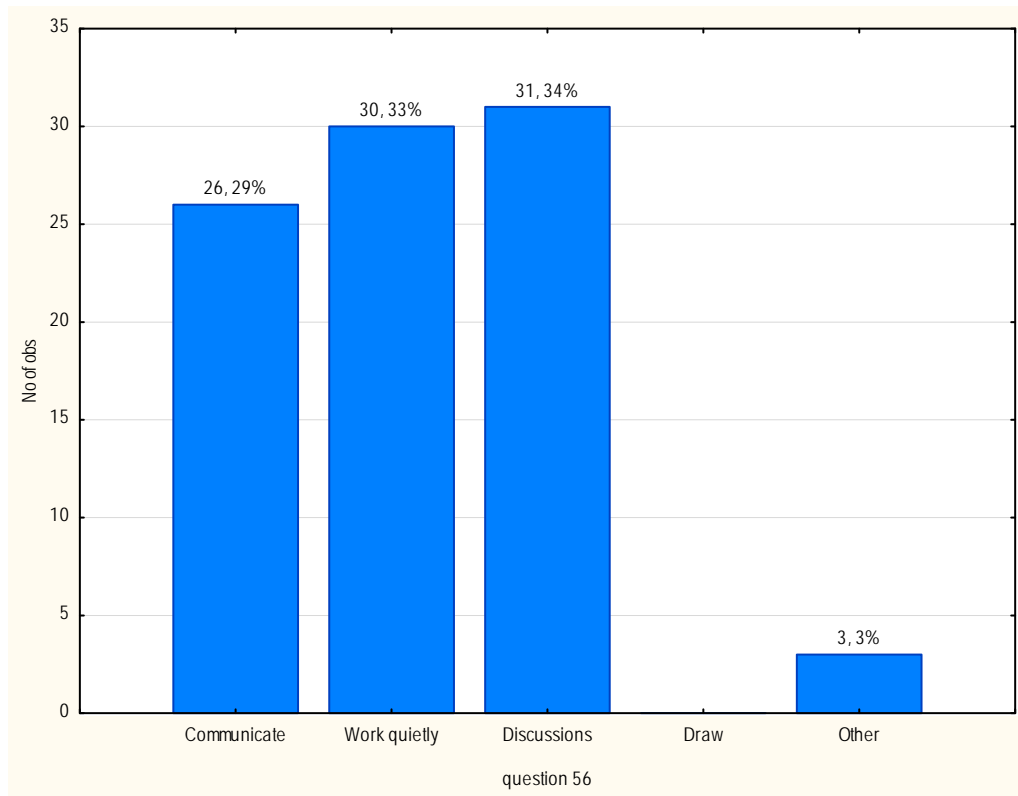
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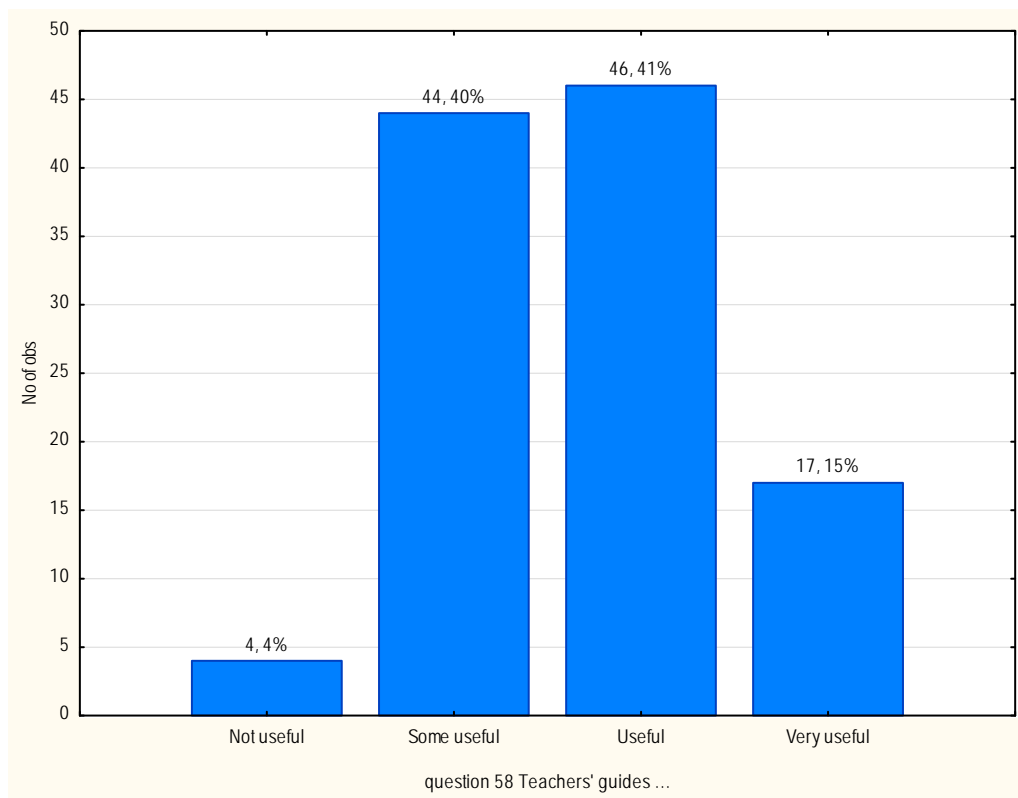
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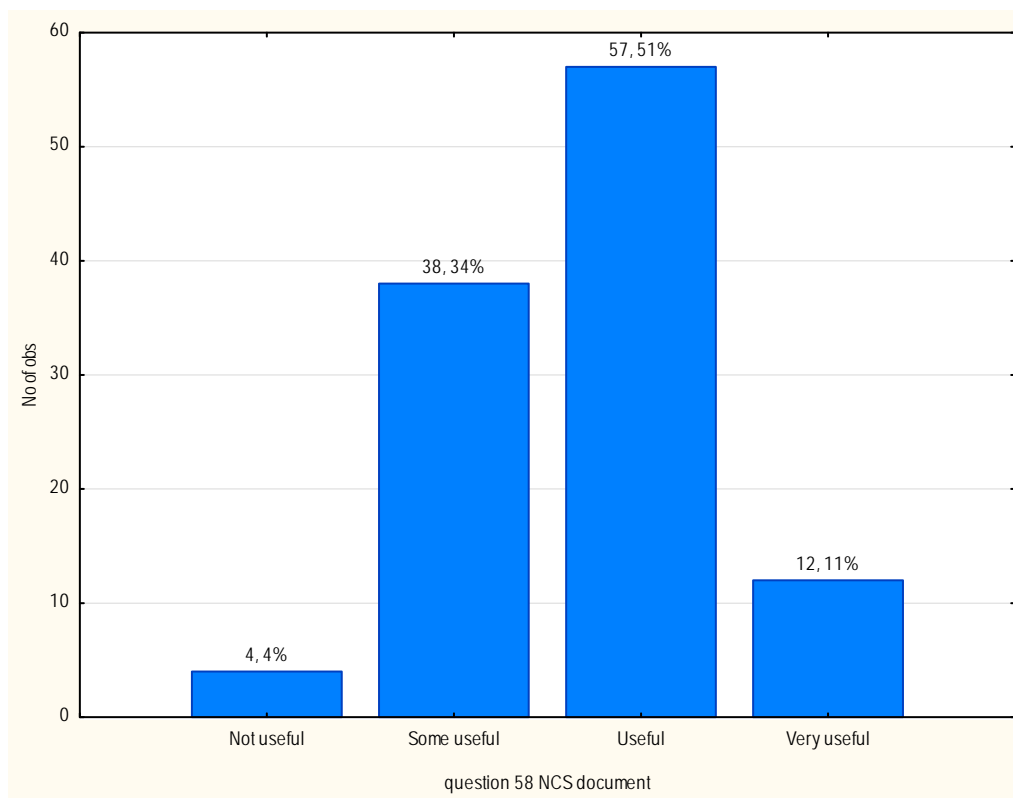
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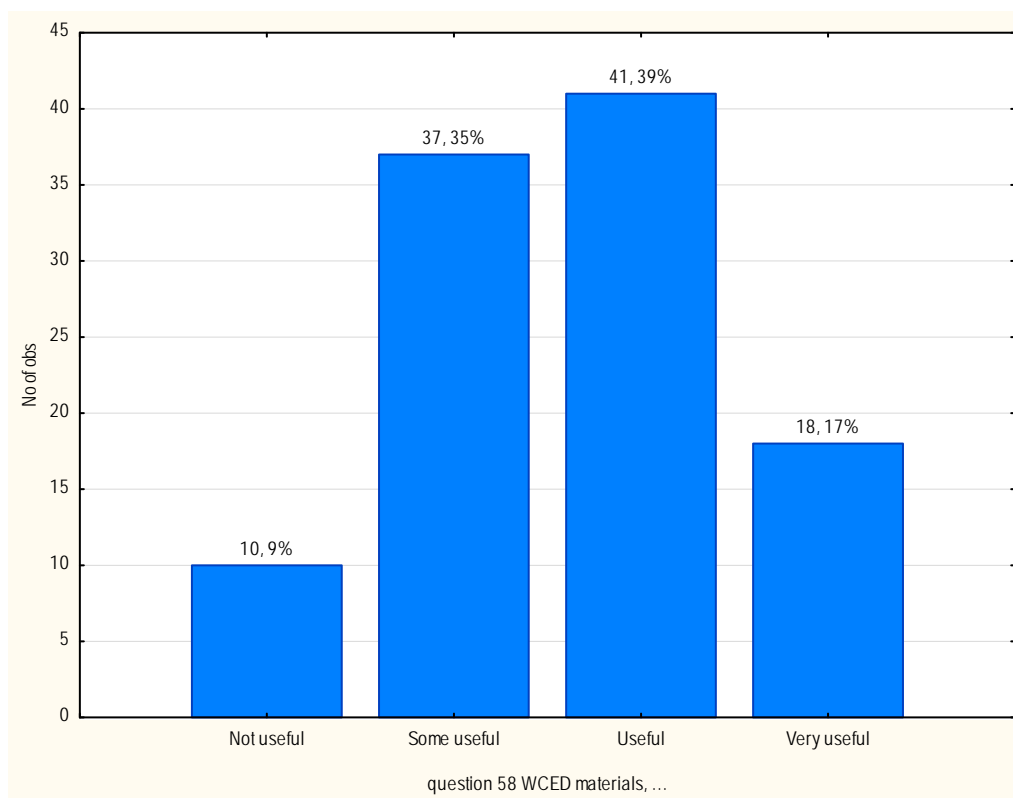
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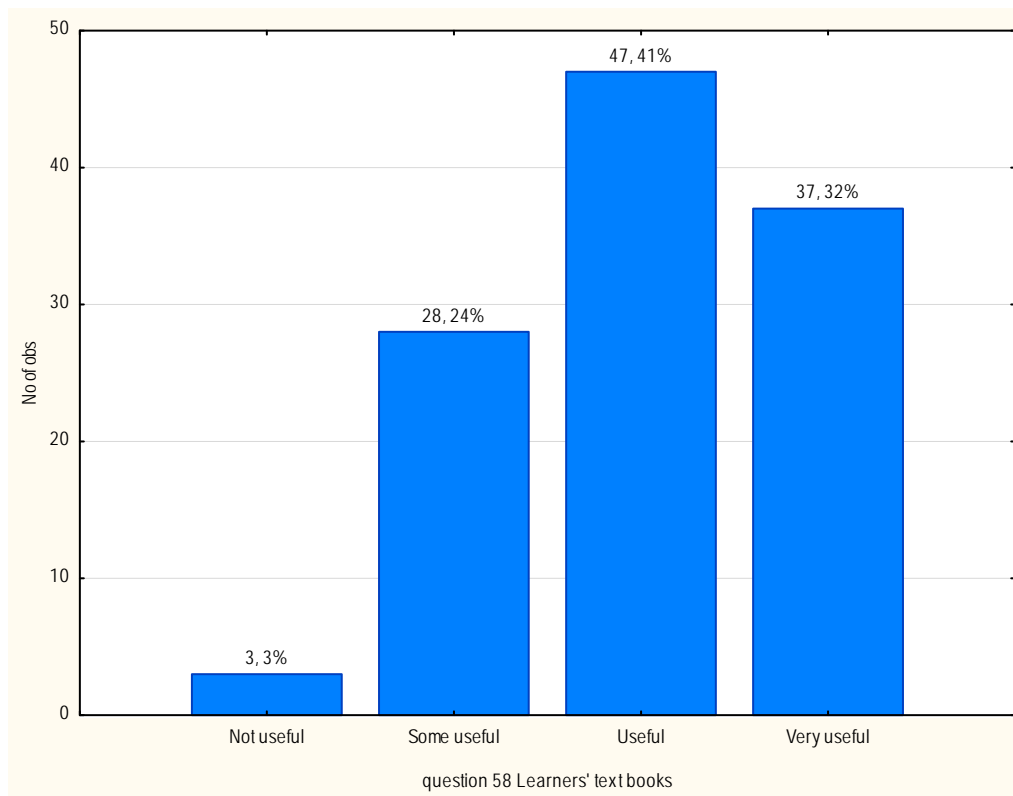
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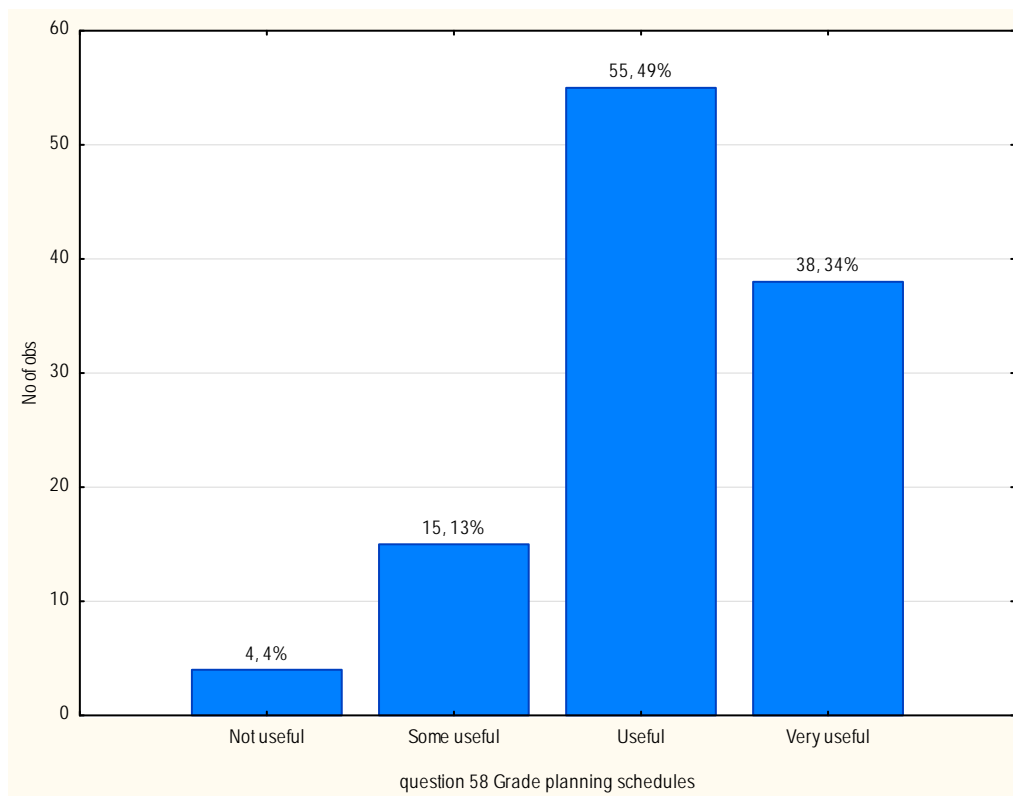
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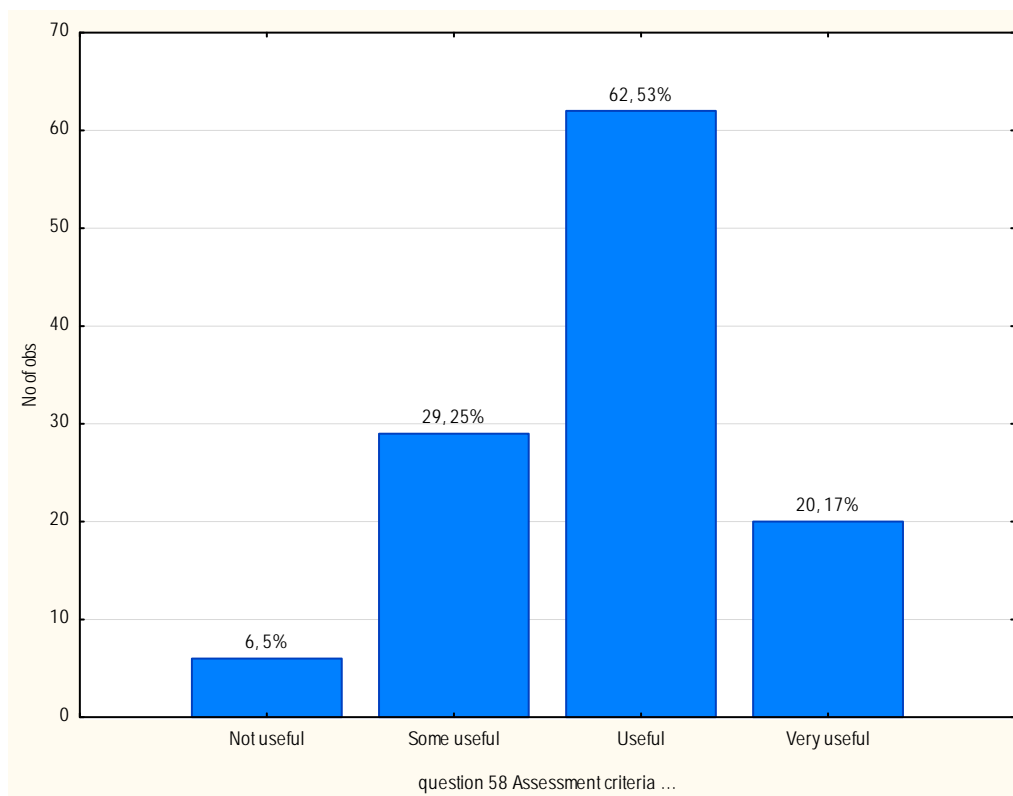
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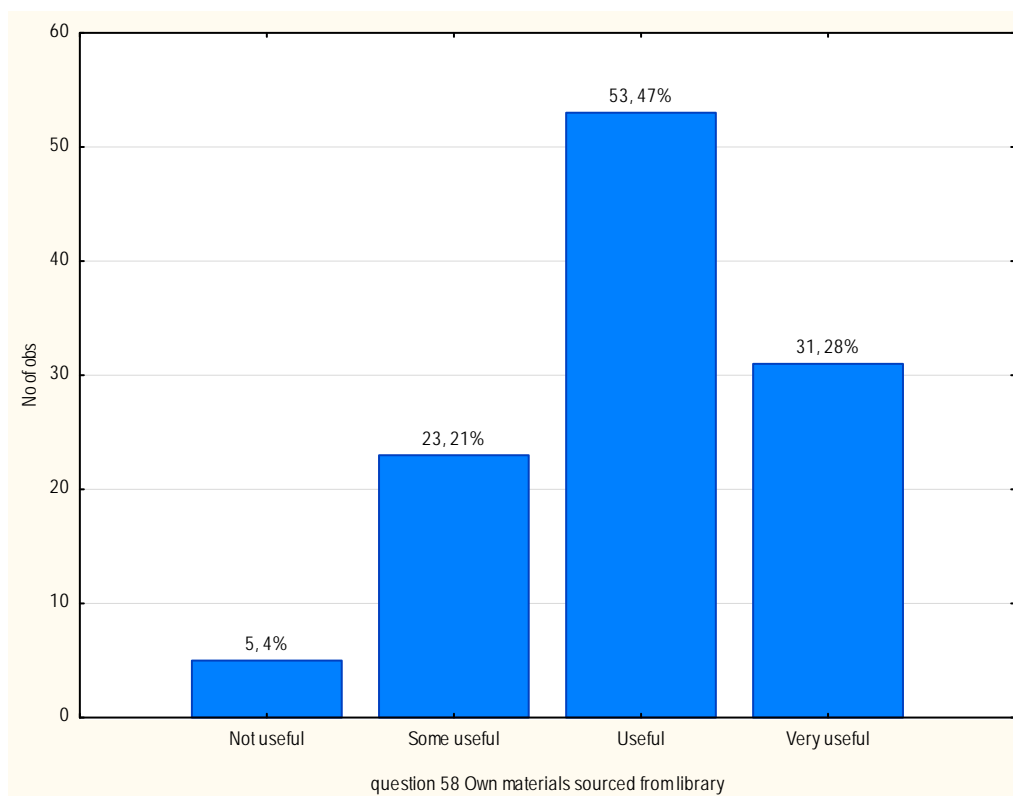
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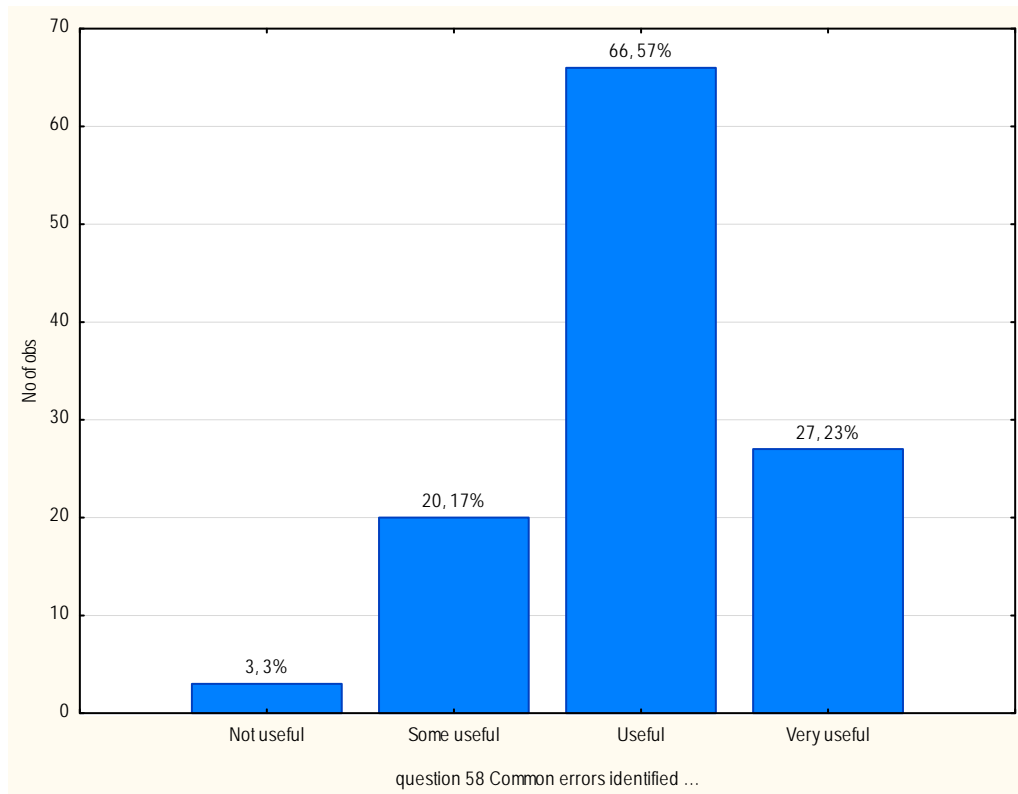
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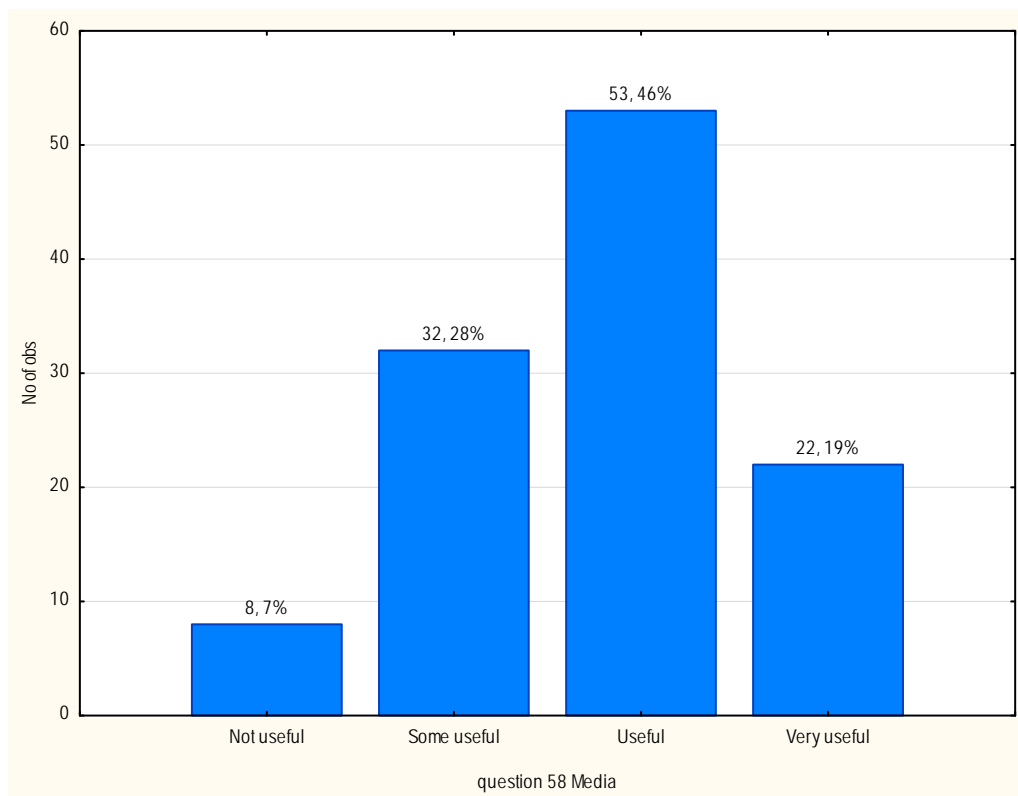
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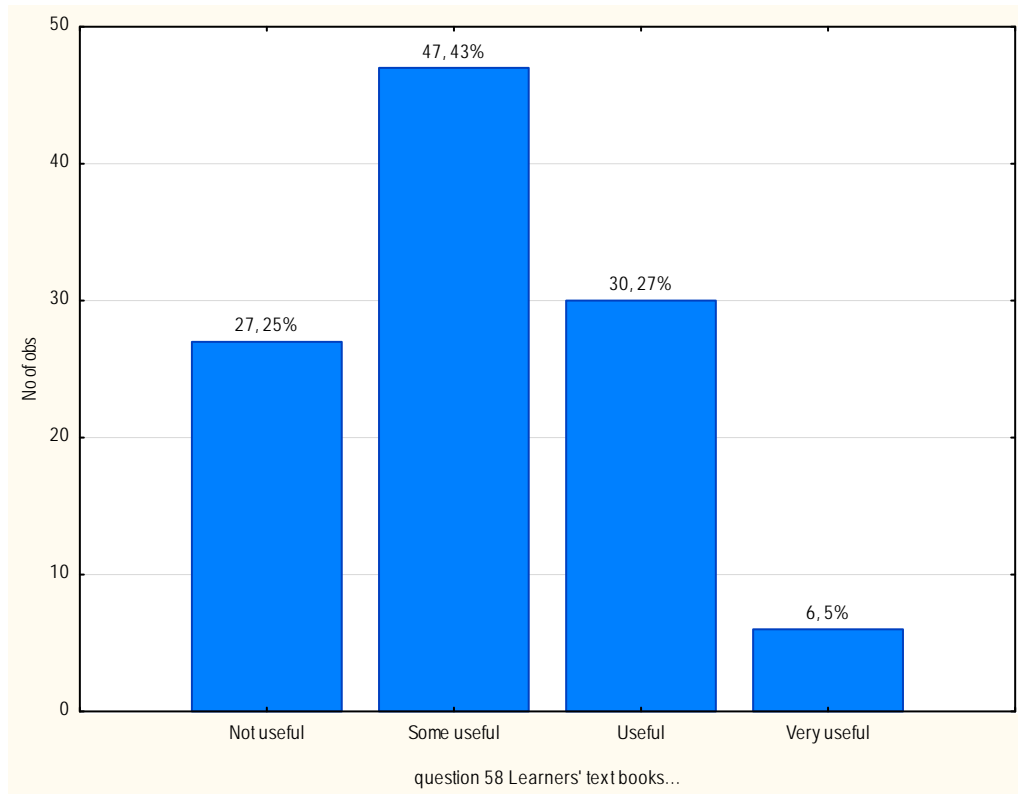
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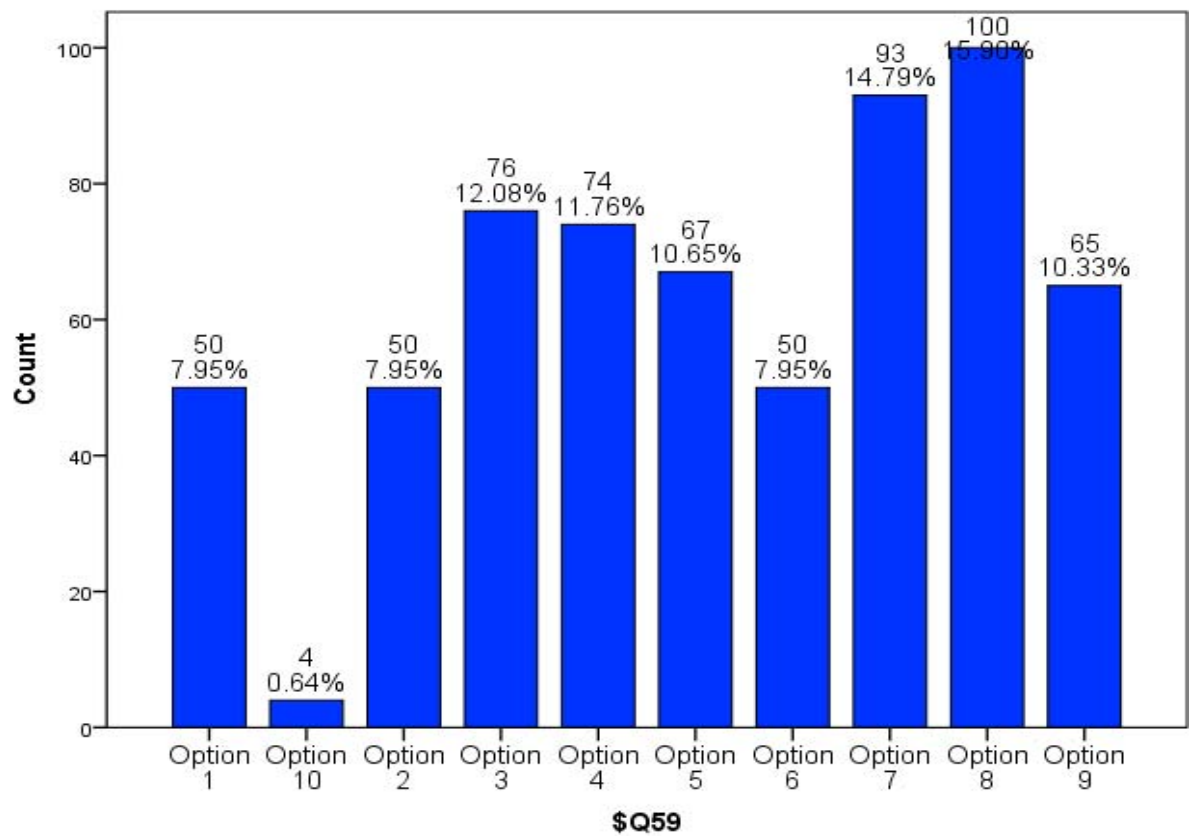
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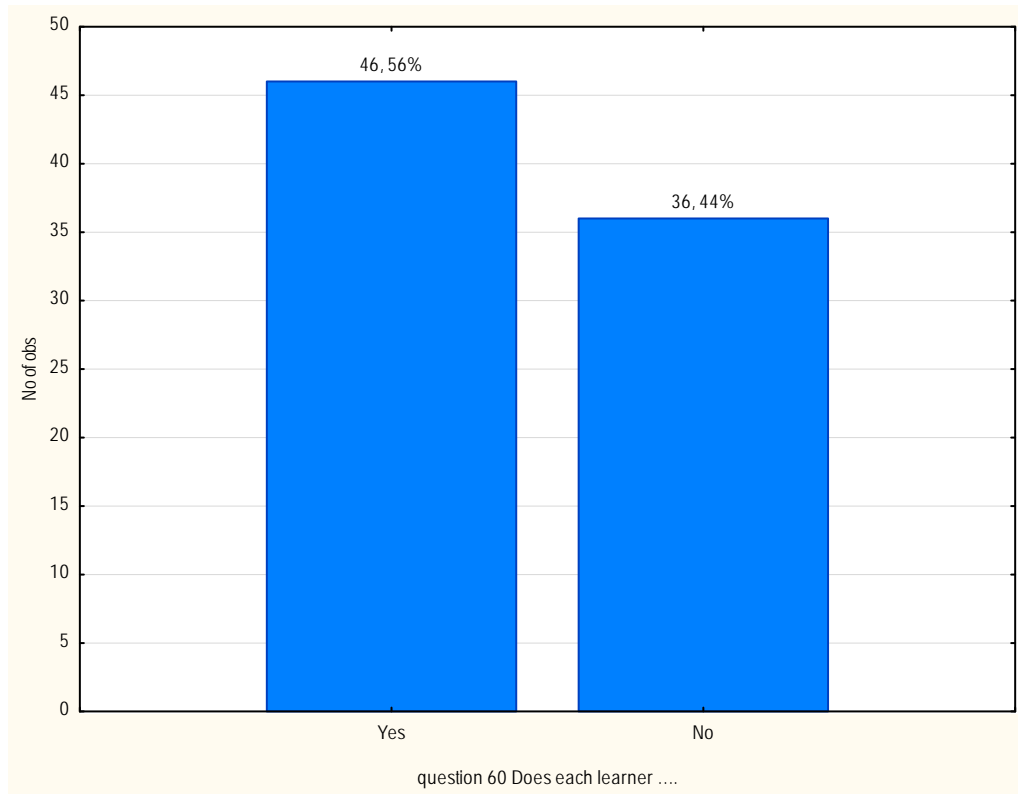
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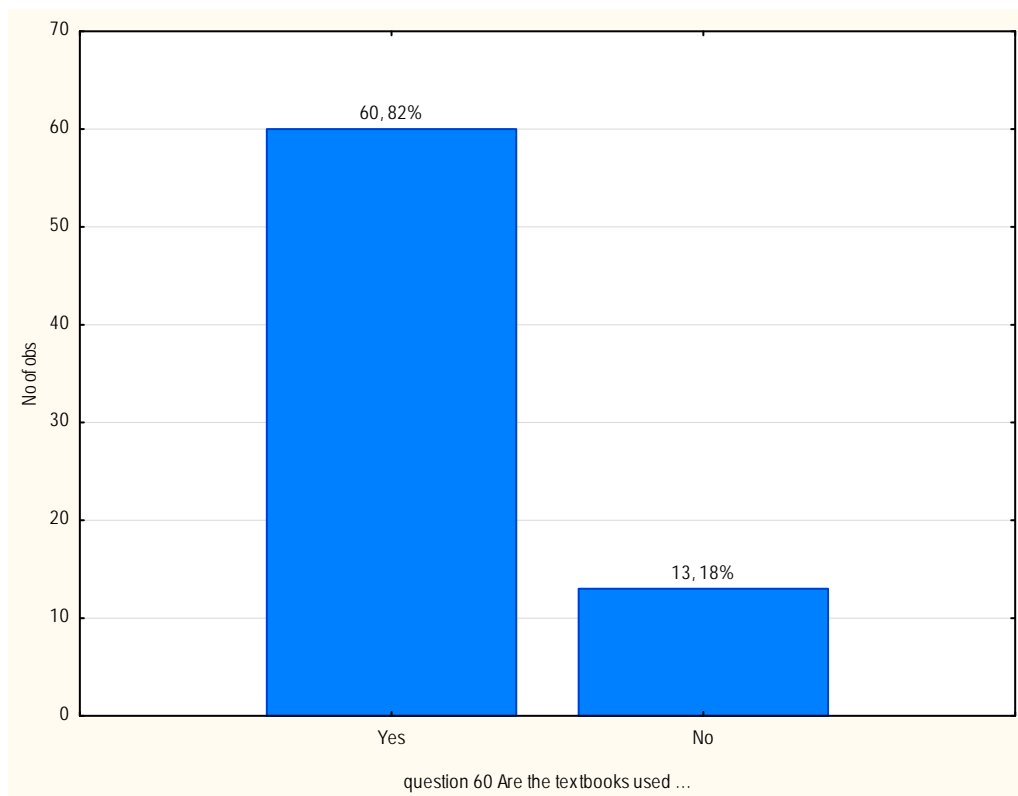
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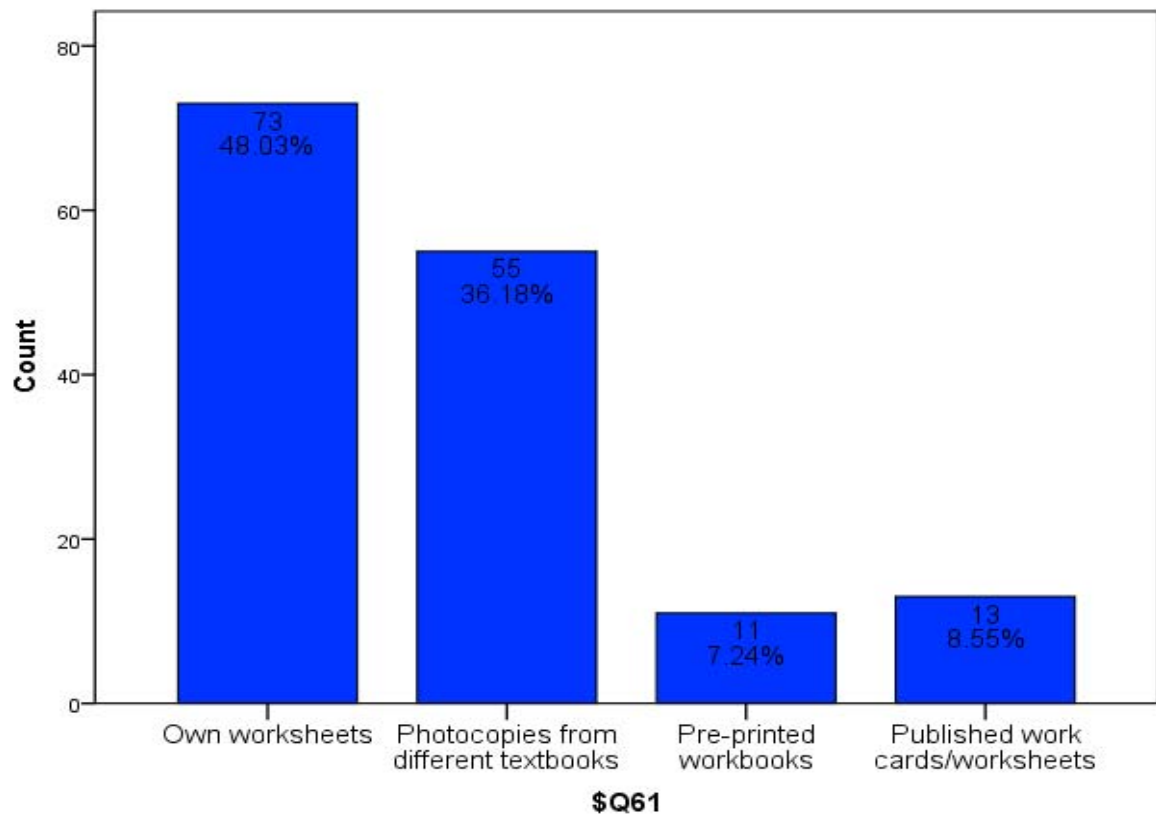
Appendix J.102



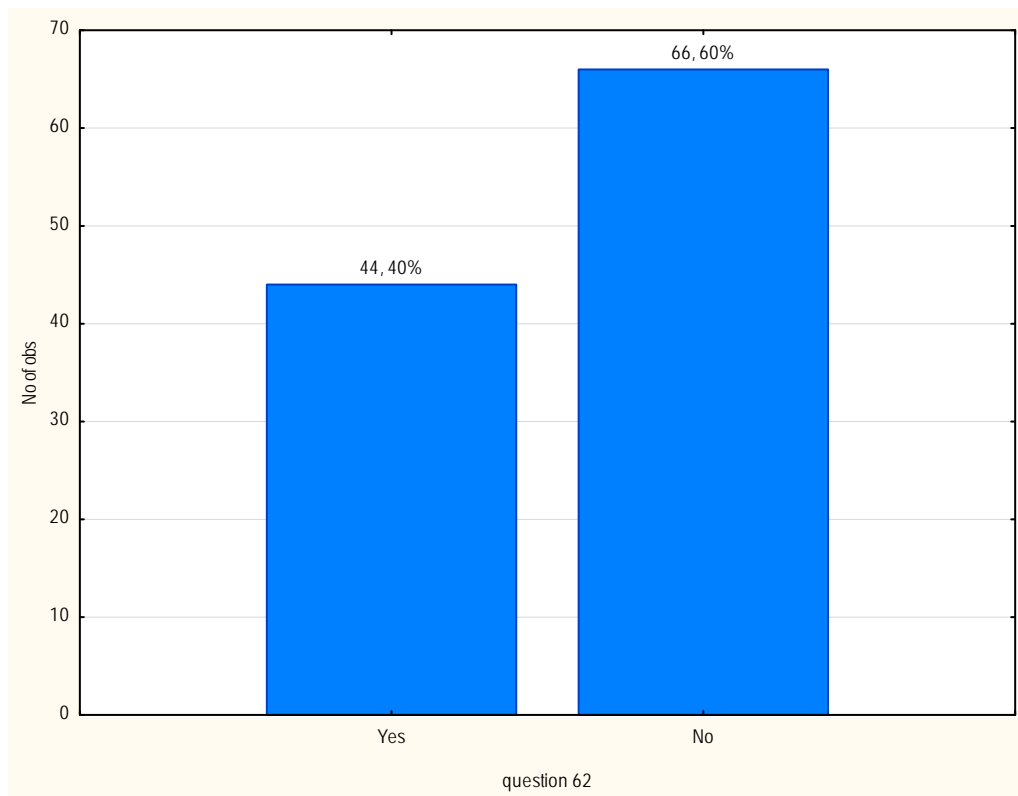
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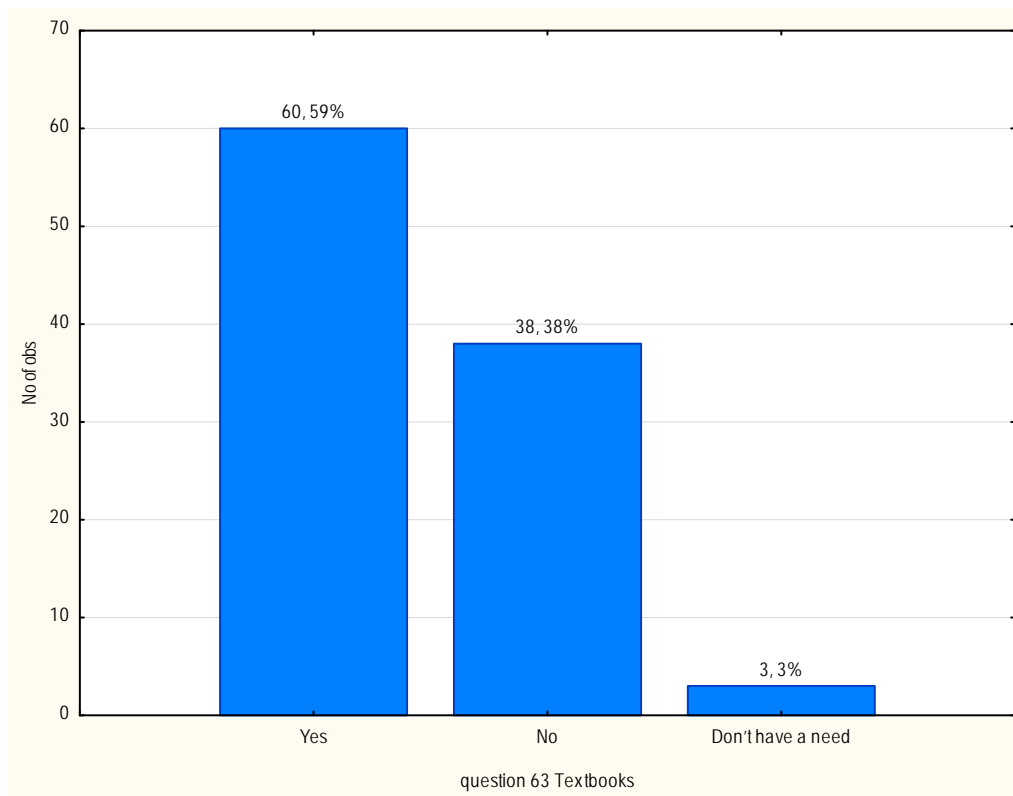
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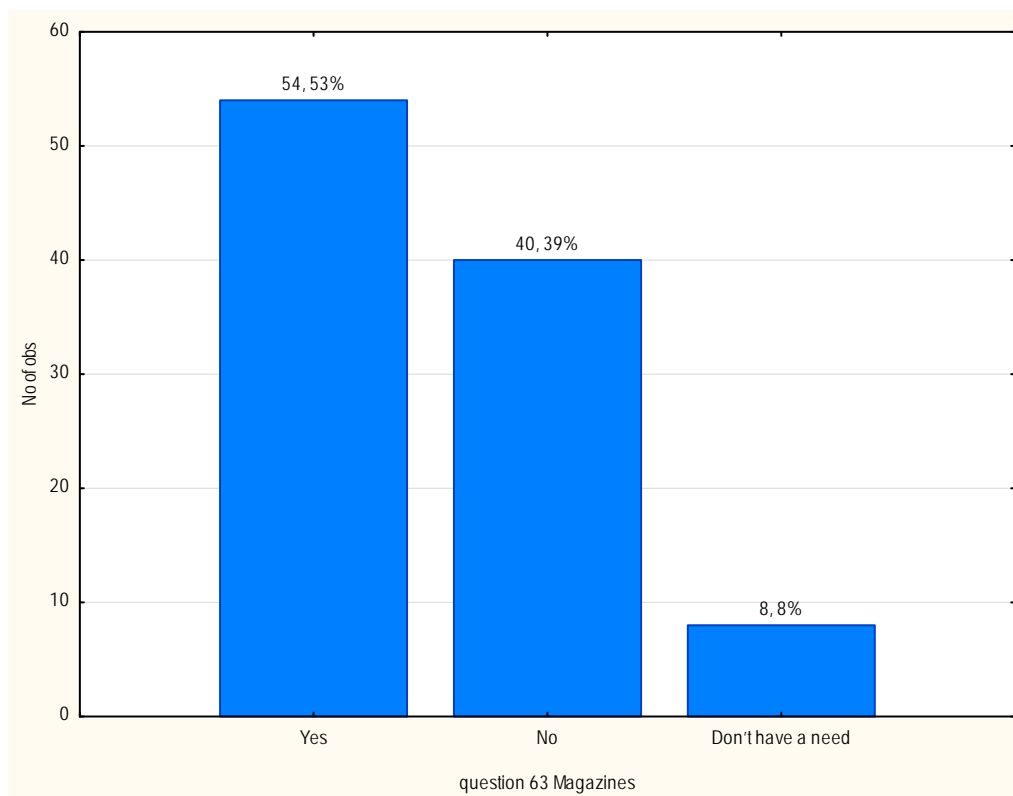
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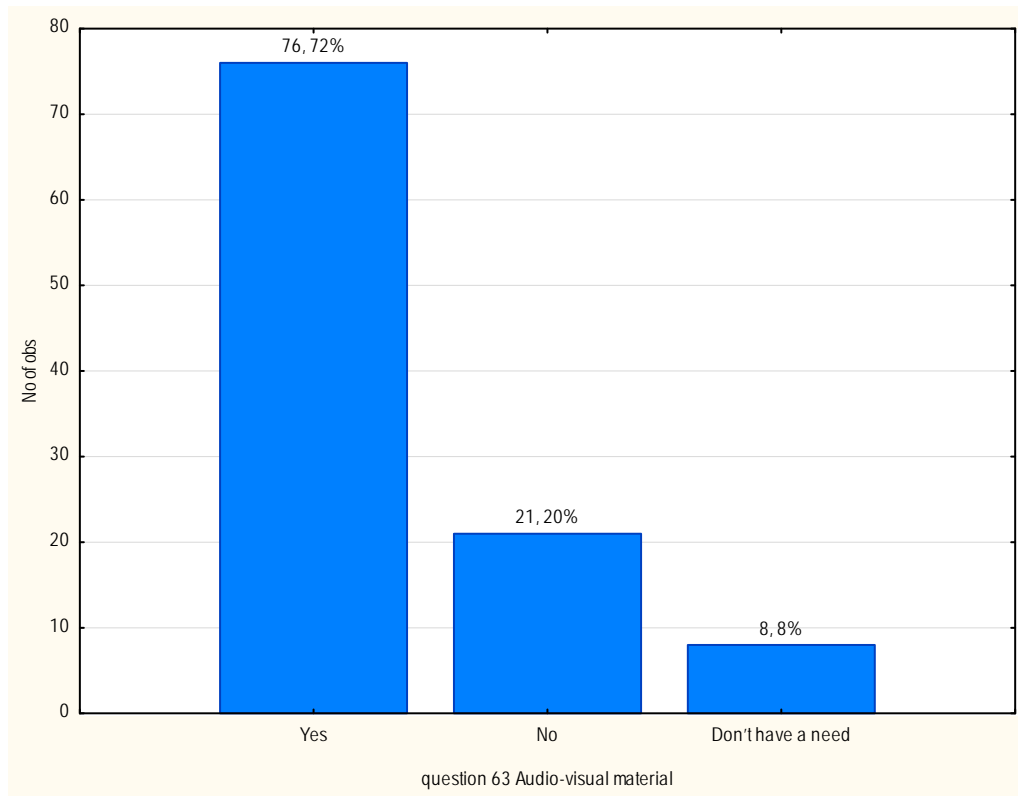
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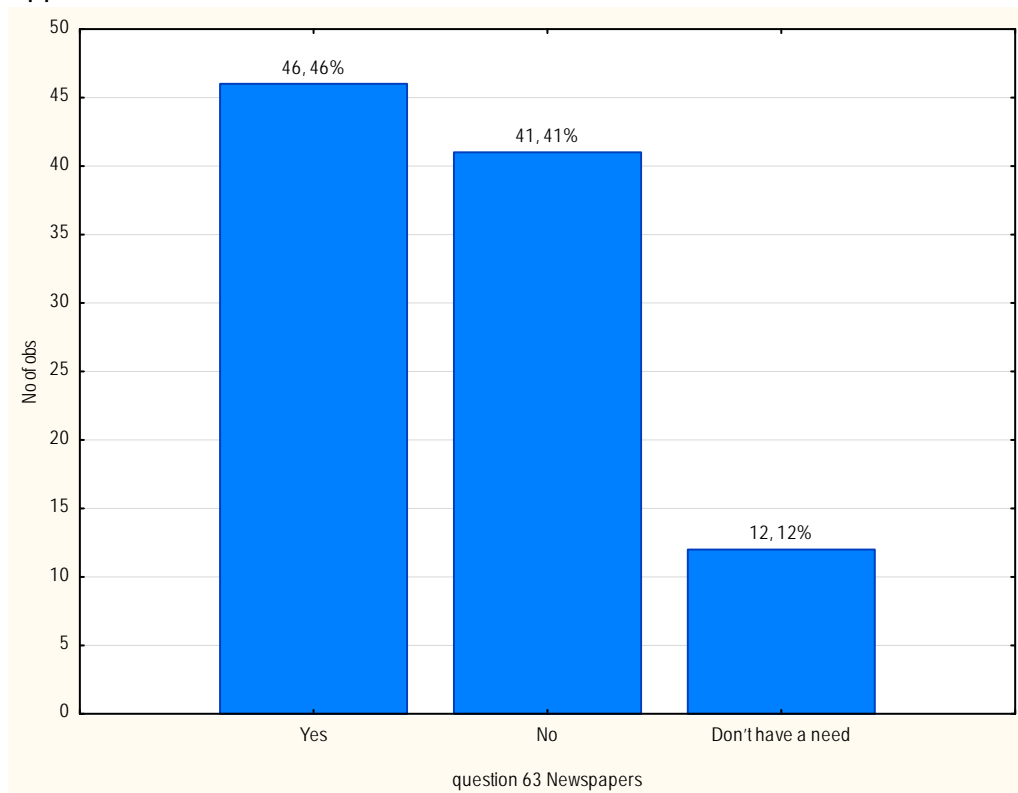
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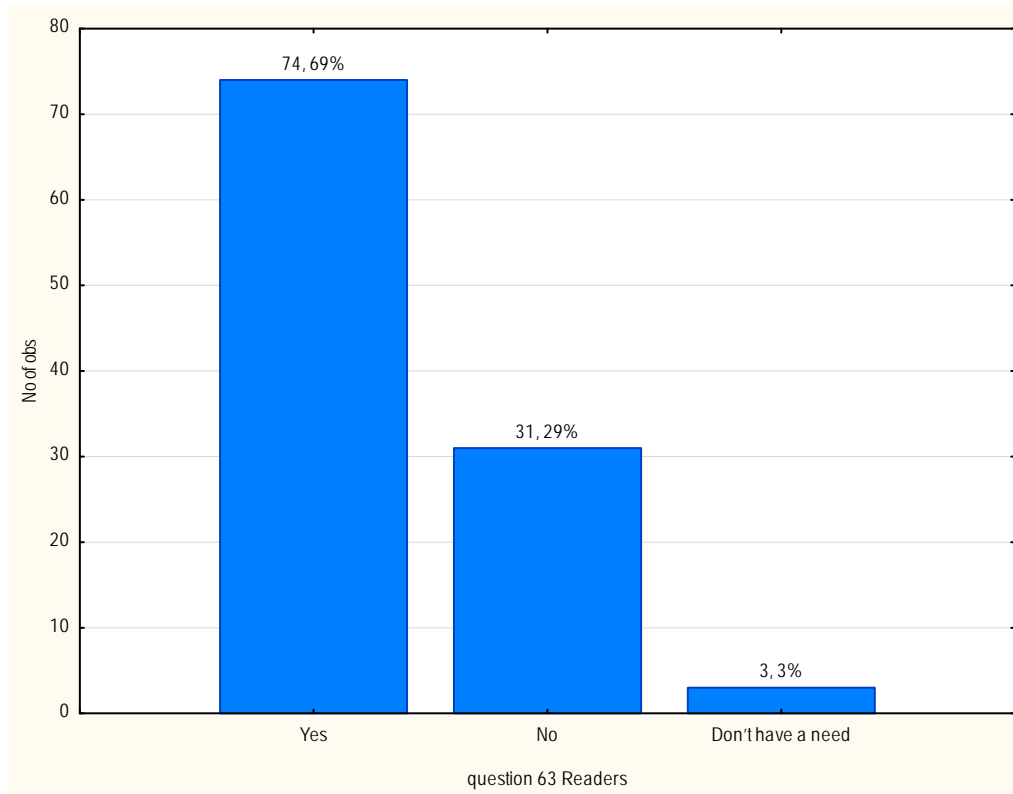
Appendix J.108



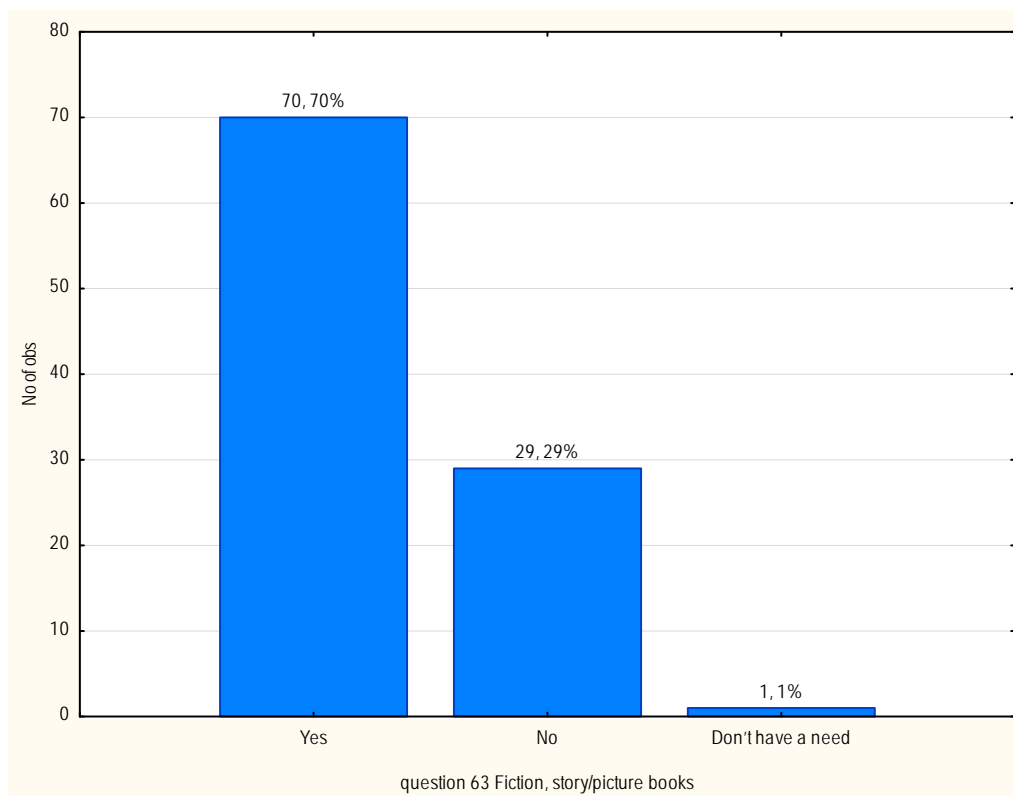
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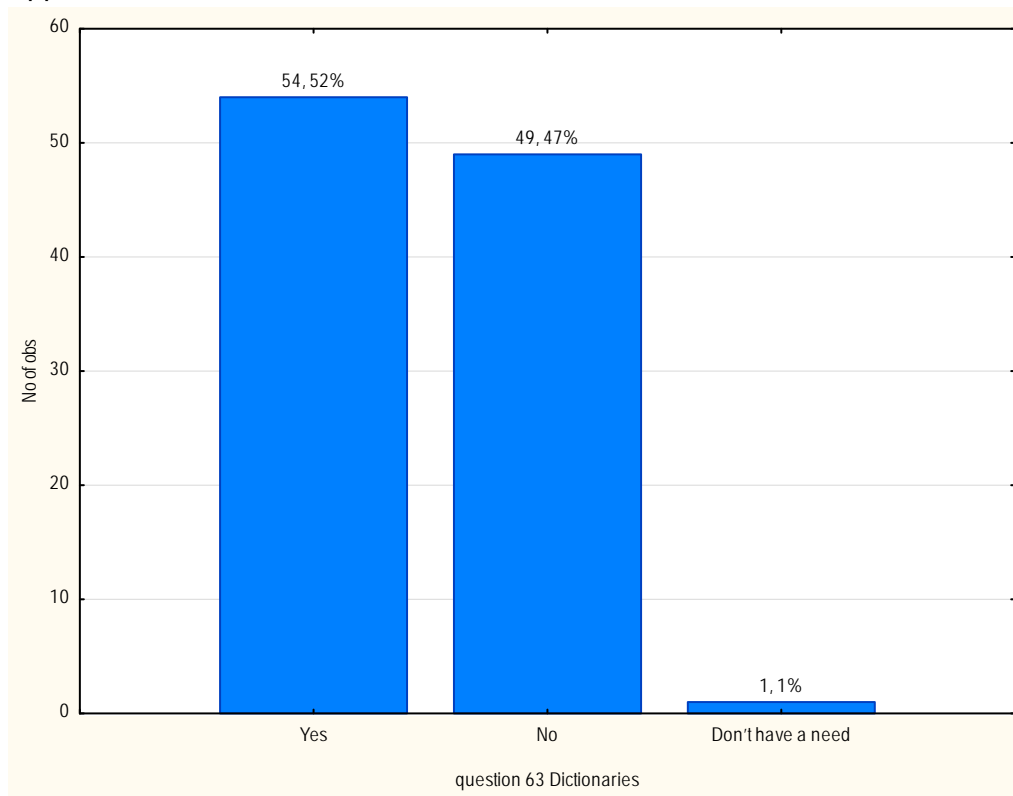
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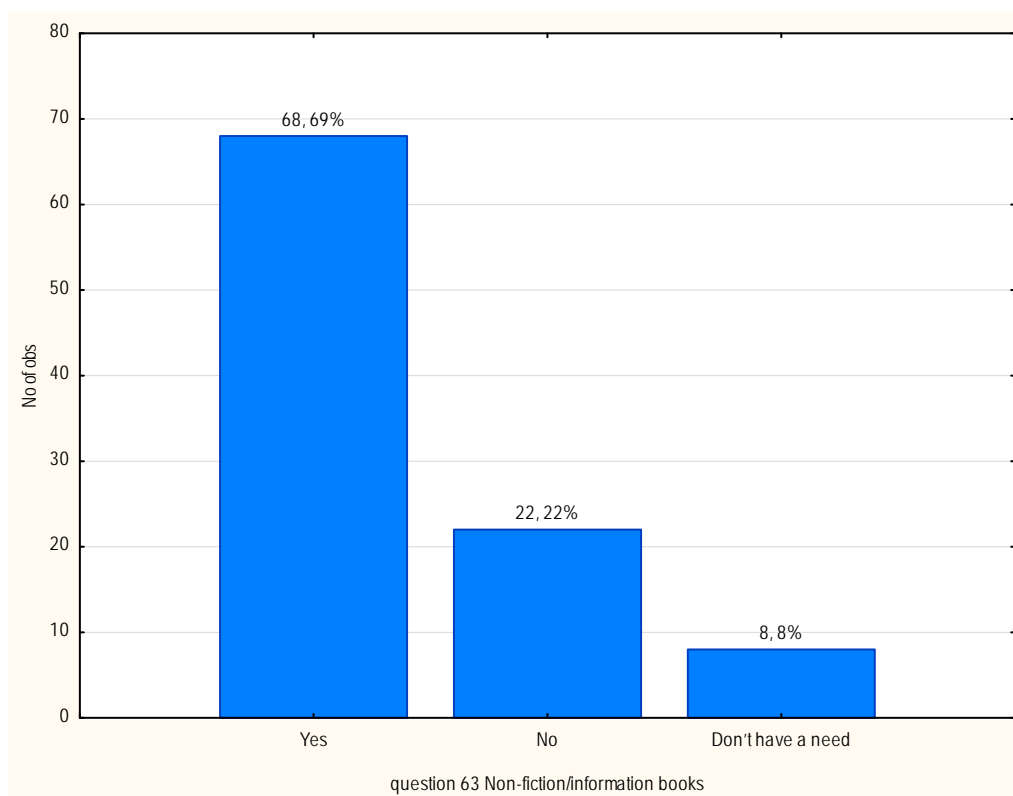
Appendix J.111



Appendix J.112



Appendix J.113



Appendix K: Ethical clearance



UNIVERSITEIT STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisennoot • your knowledge partner

21 July 2011

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Email: sidney@sun.ac.za

Reference No. 565/2011

Ms C Thornhill
Department of Curriculum Studies
University of Stellenbosch
STELLENBOSCH
7602

Ms C Thornhill

LETTER OF ETHICS CLEARANCE

With regards to your application, I would like to inform you that the project *The state of Afrikaans first additional language teaching in Grade 4-9 in urban Western Cape Educational Department schools*, has been approved on condition that:

1. The researcher/s remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal;
2. The researcher/s stay within the boundaries of applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines, and applicable standards of scientific rigor that are followed within this field of study and that;
3. The researcher submits the relevant letters of permission from the school principals for the schools participating in the research; and
4. Any substantive changes to this research project should be brought to the attention of the Ethics Committee with a view to obtain ethical clearance for it.

We wish you success with your research activities.

Best regards


MR S. ENGELBRECHT

Secretary: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humaniora)

Registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council (NHREC): REC-050411-032



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